the simpson trans

THE ENGLISH 79

ACADEMY:

Or , A Brief INTRODUCTION TO THE

SEVEN LIBERAL ARTS.

Grammar, Aftronomie Arithmetick, Geometrie, Musick, Logick

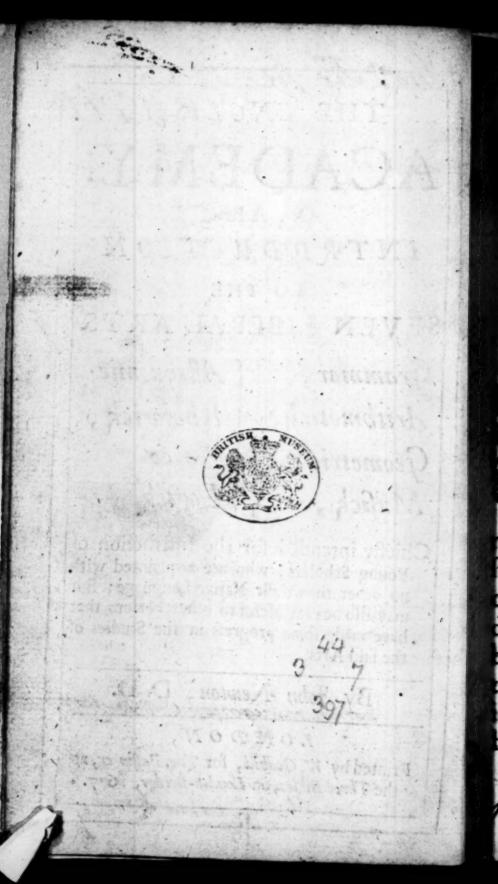
Rbetorick ,

Chiefly intended for the Instruction of Young Scholars, who are acquainted with no other than their Native Language; But may also be very useful to other Persons that have made fome progress in the Studies of the faid Arts.

By John Newton, D. D.

LONDON,

Printed by W. Godbid, for The. Paffinger, at the Three Bibles, on Landon-Bridge, 1677.



黎教教教教教教教教教教教

TO THE

READER.

Have perhaps troubled thee and the Press already too much; if it be so, I shall however hope, that I am

not unpardonable, because I have still intended well to the good of the Publick; every one I think desires to give their Children the best Education that they can; but the highest degree of Education is not always best: And I must beg thy Pardon, if I do offend

What best thee a Quaker

thee, in saying, That next to the bare Reading of English, the sending of Children to the Latin-School, is not the best way of giving them Education, for is that were granted, which I must deny, That the Latin and Greek Tongues were not only necessary for all Children whatsoever, but also more easily learned, than the liberal Arts; yet Writing is so necessary to be first Learned, that it is almost impossible to attain the other without it.

And as Writing is very necessary in order to the Latin and Greek Tongues, so is it also necessary in order to the true Spelling and Understanding of the English, or any other Native Language; and indeed the Art of Grammar is the only One of the Seven, that claimes a propriety in every Native

tive Language: As for the other Arts, they are the same, in all Languages, the Rules of Arithmetick and Geometry, of Musick and Astronomy, of Rhetorick and Logick, are in the General, as Intelligible in every Language, as in the Latin and Greek, or any other; and therefore to them, that have no other need of the Latin and Greek Tongues, than the Learning of these Arts, may, I conceive, spare that pains, and Learn them in their own Native Language, or as many of them, as will be thought useful for them, in their several Stations in the World.

Again, these Arts are not only attainable in every Native Language, but more easily attainable than the Latin and Greek Tongues are, to which some seem A 4 desirous

desirous to confine the Arts; and being so attained, do render other

Languages more easie also.

For these, and the like Reasons, as I have already Published distinct Introductions to every Art, except Musick; for which I refer thee to Mr. Joh. Playford's Introduction; fo now I have been easily perswaded, to give thee a short view of them altogether; he that desires more full Instruction, may peruse the several Tracts by me Written, in our own, or those that are written by other Men in other Languages. The whole Building is but small, and therefore I will not make the Porch great, I have placed the Arts in that Order, in which, (with submission to better Judgements) I do conceive they should be learned: And although I cannot fay now, as I have in some of my Epistles

Epistles preceding my former Tracts, that there is not so much s one Mathematical School in England, for now there is by His Majesties Bounty a fair Foundation laid in Christ-Church-Hospital, London, and one chosen to Manage it, by Name Mr. J. Leake, who is so well known, that he needeth no Mans Commendations to express his Worth; Yet thus much I still declare to be my Opinion, That it is more proper, that the Latin School should be supplied with Scholars from the Mathematical, than that the Mathematical should be supplied from the Latin and Greek Schools's However by this means, I hope it will come to pass, that afterages will be supplied with that Knowledge in Arithmetick, Geo. metry, and Astronomy, which hitherto our Writing-Masters have

not

not been able to Teach, nor our Grammar Masters either able of willing to undertake; so that in a Word, There are few Country School-Masters that can Teach these things: But yet amongs them, the well Accomplished Mr. Perkins of Guildford, with whom I have not had the happi ness to be immediately Acquainted, yet Report hath rendred him to the World a worthy Master and Teacher of that Science. And there are not many Tutors in either of our Universities that do; and yet the usefulness of these Arts cannot be denied, and therefore my hopes are, that some Universal Encouragément will yet be given for the Teaching of them.

And could I be so happy, as to see something done in order to it,

Thould think my self abundantfatisfied for all the Pains I have therto taken, and shall ever st,

Thine and his Countrys Servant,

JOHN NEWTON.

model dank my less spendant oval i aria l'ens illa von issemble personal and and their even TOWN I'S WILLO

新生物性的性质的性质的性质的

THE

PREFACE

OR

NTRODUCTION

TO THE

ets and Sciences in the General.



Isdom is the Principal thing, and therefore saith Solomon, Get Wisdom, and with all thy getting, get Understanding. Prov. 4-7and what is meant by Wis-

hold the Fear of the Lord, that is listom, and to depart from Evil, at is Understanding. They who seek

for this Wisdom, are the only true Philo. Sophers; for Philosophie is nothing elle but the love of Wisdom, and they who Fear God, and depart from Evil, are the lovers of that, which is the only real and true wisdom: Now for as much, as we cannot be faid to fear God, except we know him, wisdom may well be defined to be, the Knowledge of God and the things that are of him, the knowledge of things Divine and Humane, and this is commonly called Philosophie, but somewhat impreperly, for Philosophie is not properly the Knowledge it self, but the love of that Knowledge; and whatflewer Art or Science doth conduce to this Knowledge, may be rightly and truly called Sophia, or Wildom; and because all Men should love such knowledge and Delight in it, I fool not gainfay the general Name by which it is called, custom will have it for les a therefore be called Philosophy.

fi

Λ

07

H

H

Sophia then, or Philosophia, Wildom, or the love of Wildom, is the Knowledge of all Arts and Sciences, which any way do conduce to the Knowledge of God: And because some of them do thereunto conduct more, some less: These arts may be distinguished

guished into two Sorts, Superiour and Inferiour.

The Superiour Arts are four;

1. Theologie or Divinity, whose Sub-

ject is the Divine Effence.

2. Metaphylicks, otherwise called the first Philosophy, whose Subject is, Being in common , or Being as Being.

3. Physicks, whose Subject is the Knowledge of Natural Bodies, as they are

Natural.

4. Ethicks, whose Subject is Morality; or the Doctrin of Manners and civil Honesty.

The Inferiour Arts are of two forts;

1. Internal or Liberal Arts, fo called, because they are attained by the Faculties of the Soul, which is a liberal or free agent, and not by the Labour or Ministry of the Hands; and these are seven:

1. Grammar, 5. Astronomie, 2. Arithmetick, 6. Rhetorick,

3. Geometrie,

7. Logick.

4. Mulick,

And these are the Subjects of this little Book.

2. The External or Mechanical and Manual Arts, so called, because they depend more upon the labour of the Body, than the Mind; such are the Arts of Tillage, Hunting, Fishing, Fowling, Weaving, and many more, not needful to be named, because no part of the ensuing Discourse.

THE

Eine Buglish Academy.

THE ENGLISH

ACADEMY.

The FIRST PART.

OF GRAMMAR.

The great and Ina XOOE effers are made

CHAP. In.T. 2, 9, 9

Of Letters and Syllables.



Rammar is an Art which Teacheth how to Speak and Write truly.

The Parts thereof are Four Letters , Syllables , Words and Sentences.

A Letter is a Character, or Index, of a fim-ple found. And in the English Tongue there

The which Letters are diftinguished from ne another, partly by their shapes, and partly the ways written with a great Cabnuol rish vd

In reference to their shapes, they are distinguilhed by three different Characters, the Roman, statick, and black English.

And in each of these Characters there is the

great and the small Letter.

In the Roman Character, the great Letter's thusformed,

A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O, P, Q, R, S, T, U, V, W, X, Y, Z.

The small thus,

a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, f, r, t, t, w, k, y, z,

The great and small Italies Letters are made thus,

A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, M, N, 0, P, Q, R, S, T, U, V, W, X, Y, Z.

a, b, c, d, s, f, s, j, i, j, k, l, m, n, a, p, q, r, s, s, t, u, v, w, x, y, z.

The great and small black English thus,

A, B, C, D, C, T, G, D, J, L, L, D, A, D, P, D, B, S, T, U, AU, F, P, T

8, b, c, b, e, f, g, b, i, j, b, i, m, n, o,

The great Letters are used in the beginning of proper Names, Emphatical words, Sentences, and Verses. The Letter I when it stands alone, is always written with a great Character.

Thefe

These Twenty and four Letters are divided to Vowels and Conforants. 20 27 1 1001 2001

A Confonant is a letter which maketh a found y help of a Vowel, and these are Eighteen, esides the letters j, w, and y, which sometimes re Consonants also. In this od or most over

Of the eighteen Confonants, some are mutes, these eight, b, c, d, g, k, p, q, and to Some mi-Vowels, as these eight, f, h, m, m, m, l, d, x, and z, of which these sounds, m, m, m, m, localled Liquids, m and m, double Confonants, and the other two, thy and m, it regular etters as belowed and of ton si tud, b muot sti

Some of these Letters, as well Vowels as consonants / have sounds very different from neir common names. Thus the letter of before and is is sounded like so but before and is is sounded like so as in propositional to allow of

The Letter f, is fometimes founded accoring to its usual name, as when it follows a
lowel, as in if, of, effeminare; but when it
egins a Word or Syllable, and is founded for y
s in feer, followed in as , bound record name at

The Letter e, before a by land not letted and thus police, as in read of the police of a single cforce and it is is force and it is force and it is force and a single counted according to its usual name and a letter w, when it here as a single of the letter w, when it here as a single of the letter w.

The Letter b is never founded according to is name ach, but thus, thee, as in hand, hilly, in.

B 2 The

The Letters j and v, when they come be fore themselves or any other Vowel in the same Syllable, become Consonants and have different sounds from their usual names, j is pronounced like gi, in give, w is pronounced vee, or vu, as in vanishing is also changed, and hence some would have them to be distinct Letters, and would have the number of our Letters to be not 24 but 26.

The Liquids 1, m, n, and r, when they begin a Word or Syllable, are founded thus, lee, mee meet ree, as in light, mind, need, read.

its found, but is not to be founded according

to its name en, but que, as in question.

The Letter f, when it begins a Word or Syllable, is to be founded thus, see, as in sad, secret but in the end of a Word, or between two Vowels or Diphthongs, it hath for the most part the sound of z, as in easie, before.

The Letter t, before i, if another Vowel followeth hath the found of si, as in Egyptian, patience; but when it followeth f or x, it hat its own proper found, as in bestial, mixtion.

being composed of twice u, it is called double u but is in no case so sounded, but we, as in wall well, will.

The Letter x, when it begins a Word or Syllable, is founded thus, xee, as in Xerxes; in

other cales thus, exagrees and don

The

The

The Letter y, hath by no means its found acording to its usual name wi, but when it beins a Word or Syllable, and so becomes a Connant, it is sounded yee, when it comes in the iddle or end of a Word, it is sounded like Vowel, as in my, thy.

The Letter z, is to be founded zee, as in

leal.

A Syllable is a literal or articulate Voice of ne individual found.

Syllables are of two forts, improper and

roper.

An Improper Syllable is made of one or more owels without a Confonant, as a-my, e-vil,

E-neas, Oe-dipus.

A Proper Syllable is the comprehension of ne or more Consonants, with one or more lowels, in one sound or breath; as Generation, Mountain, and in our English Tongue oth sometimes consist of eight Letters, as rength.

When two Vowels are joyned together in ne found or breath, they are called Dipnongs; of which there are two forts, Proper

nd Improper.

e

ü

l.

Of proper Dipthongs, there are these eight,

i, ei, oi, an, en, on, ee, and oo.

The first six are sometimes written thus, ay, oy, aw, ew, ow.

Of improper Dipthongs there are but thefe

hree, ea, oa, and ie.

The two Vowels which make a Dipthong, re for the most part to be founded together,

B 3

as in Faith, neither, Eunuch, but in these words Laity, Mosaick-work, Deity, Atheist, moity, doing reemer, reiterate, and such like, and in mo Proper Names in the Bible they are to be some

ded feverally.

The Improper Dipthongs ea and oa, an founded together, except in these Words beatitude, creator, creation, real, theatre, and most proper names of Women, Cities, and Countries; but the two Vowels in this Dipthone, are usually parted, except in these two Words, friend, grief, and when they come in the end of a Word, as in mercie, charitie, and such like.

An English Syllable, though it may consist of eight Letters, yet doth it never begin with more than two Vowels before a Consonant, of three Consonants before a Vowel or Dipthong

The two Consonants which may begin a English Word or Syllable are these thirty, Bl, br, ch, cl, cr, dr, dw, fl, fr, gl, gn, gr, ke, pl, pr, sc, sh, sk, sp, sl, sm, sn, sq, jw, th, tr, tw, wh, and wr.

And the three Consonants that may begin an English Word are these nine, Sch, for, she

shr, fpl, fpr, ftr, thr, thw.

In the founding of the Confonants which an joyned together in the beginning of a Word, there is no difficulty, but in these few, ch, gh, and the sund and the sun

The Letters ch when they come before a Vowelin a pure English Word, they are to be founded as in chance, cheap; and when they

COL

ords loing cod loun

rds

mo

oun

ION

two

ei

an

to

rit

ng

y ,

ď.

Ħ,

П

d,

b,

o' 100 1 17

ome after a Vowel, they are to be sounded, as ach, reach, rich. But lin Words derived rom the Greek and Hebrew, they are to be bunded like k, as in character, these sew only xcepted, Rachel, Cherubin, Tychicus, Archesssop, Arch-Duke gu Architect și Archenery, Arch-pirat.

The Letters gb, in the beginning of a Word, re to be founded like g hard, as in ghaft, ghefs, in the middle of a Word, they are either not ounded at all, or but foftly, as in might, light, and in the end of a Word they have the ound of ff, as cough, tough.

These Letters th, in Words of one Syllable and in Words of more than one, ending in ther, thed, theth, these, thing, they have the sound of d, in other words the sound of r, or the Greek Theta.

The Letters ph never begin a pure English Word, but such only as are derived from the Greek and Hebrew, as Pharifee, Pharez, Epicaph, and in these they are sounded like f.

The Liquids, *l, m, n, r*, when another Confonant doth precede them in the beginning or middle of a Word, do retain their own found; but in the end of a Word, though the Vowel's ought to be written, yet in the pronunciation, you must stop at the two Confonants, and omit the Vowel; for Example, fable, acre, uncle, must be pronounced as though they were written thus, fabl, acr, uncl.

CHAP. II.

of Words.

Word, is such a comprehension of Letter and Syllables, as helpeth Man-kind to e press their minds to one another.

There are eight kinds of Words, or parts of Speech, Noun, Pronoun, Verb, Participle, Averb, Conjunction, Preposition, Interjection.

A Noun, is the name of a Person or Thing

as, an Author, a Book, learned, guilded.

Of Nouns, some be Substantives, and some

be Adjectives.

A Noun Substantive, is a Word, that signification for from thing, and may have the sign (a) or (the) before it; as, a Man, the Book.

A Noun Adjective, is a Word, that cannot

fignifie a thing of it felf; as, good, bad.

There are two forts of Nouns Subfantives.

A Noun Substantive proper, and a Noun Sub-

A Noun substantive proper, is a Noun that is proper to the person or thing, that it betoken

eth; as, Henry, England.

A Noun substantive common, is a Noun common to all things of the same kind; as, a Man, a Land, an Angel.

To a Noun there doth belong two things,

number and comparison.

There be two Numbers, the singular and the plural; The Singular number speaketh but of

One; as, a Man, a Book, a Stone. The Plural number speaketh of more than One; as, Men,

Books, Stones.

ts

ome

Nouns substantive of the singular number, are turned into the plural, by adding unto them s or es, as web, webs, robe, robes, Church, Churches, hedg, hedges. Some Nouns of the singular number ending in f, being plurals, do change f into v, as beef, beeves, calf, calves. And some are made plurals, by adding of en or ren; as, Ox, oxen, chick, chicken, brother, brotheren, or by contraction, brethren, child, children; of Man is formed mannen, or men, house, housen, hose, hosen; to which may be added, mouse, mice, louse, lice, die, dice, sow, swine, cow, kine, penie, pence, goose, geese, tooth, teeth, foot, feet; these two, Sheep and Mile, are both singular and plural; as, one sheep, ten sheep, one mile, ten mile or miles.

Other variation of Nouns we have none in the English Tongue; all other distinctions are made by these Articles and Prepositions; a, of,

to, the, o, and in or, from, coc.

Nouns that fignifie the Male kind, we call bees; fuch as fignifie the Female, we call shees; and of fuch as fignifie neither, we say it; as, Esau could not obtain his Fathers Blessing, though be sought it, with tears: Jezabel was a wicked Woman, for the slew the Lords Prophets.

Comparison belongeth only to Nouns Adjetives, whose fignification may be increased, or

diminished.

There be three degrees of Comparison, the Positive, Comparative, and the Superlative.

The

The Positive degree setteth down the quality of a thing absolutely without excess, as hard, soft, swift.

The Comparative degree raiseth the signification of the Positive in comparison of some

other, as barder, fofter, fwifter.

The Superlative exceedeth his positive in the

highest degree, as hardest, Softest, Swiftest.

Adjettives are compared in the English tongue, either by the signs more and most, or by the terminations er, and est, as hard, harder, or more hard, hardest, or most hard.

Some Adjectives are compared irregularly; as, Good, better, best; bad, worse, worst; little

less, leaft.

CHAP. III.

Of a Pronoun.

A Pronoun is a part of Speech, much like to a Noun, implying a Person, and not admitting the Sign a or the, before it.

There are twelves Pronouns, I, Thou, He, who, which, that, the same, my, thy, this, his,

whose.

Of Pronouns, fome be primitives and fome derivatives.

Pronoun primatives are of three forts, Perfonal, Relative and Demonstrative.

There are three Pronoun personals, I, Thou,

and He.

Pronoun

Pronoun Relatives, are likewise three, who, which and that.

Pronoun Demonstratives, are these two, this,

the same.

Pronoun Derivatives are these four, my, thy, his, whose. All which with their variations, are expressed in the following Type.

Possessives.

- 1. Person. Sing. SI, me, my, mine. Plur. we, us, our, ours,
- 2. Person. \Sing. \Sthou, thee, thy, thine, ye, you, your, yours.
- 3. Person. Sing. Sem. she, him, his. Fem. she, her, hers. neith, it, its.

 Plur. they them, their, theirs.

Relatives. { To perf. Swho, whom, whose. To thing. Swhat, whereof.

Own is a Noun adjective, and self or selves a Substantive, but are sometimes joyned to, or compounded with the Pronouns; as, my self, they self, themselves, his own felf, their own selves.

This word where, with certain Prepolitions following it; as, about, at, by, in, of, unto, with, hath the fignification of which as, wherein, or in which. And these words, here, there, are in like manner used for, this, that; as, herewith, therewith, for with this, with that.

CHAP.

CHAP. IV.

Of a Verb and Participle.

A Verb is a part of Speech, that joyneth the Signification of other Words together.

There are three kinds of Verbs; Active, Pafive, and Neuter.

A Verb Active, is a Verb that betokeneth do-

ing, as I lave.

A Verb Passive, is a Verb which betokeneth

fuffering, as I am loved-

A Verb Neuter, is a Verb which betokeneth being, as I am.

Four things belong to a Verb , Mood , Tenfe,

Number, and Person.

There are four Moods, the Indicative, the Imperative, the Potential, and the Infinitive.

The Indicative either sheweth a reason true or false, as I love, or asketh a Question, as, dost thou love?

The Imperative Mood, intreateth, permitteth,

or commandeth, as love be, or let him love.

The Potential Mood, signifieth a power, duty, or desire, and hath one of these Signs, may, can, might, would, should, could, or ought, as I may or can love.

The Infinitive Mood, notes no certain Number or Person, but followeth another Verb, or an Adjective, and hath commonly this Sign (to) before it, as I desire to learn, worthy to be praised.

The Tenses or distinctions of Time, are five,

The Present Tense, the Preserimperfect Tense, the Preserperfect Tense, the Preserpluperfect Tense,

and the Future Tenfe.

These Tenses in respect of signification, are thus distinguished; in the Indicative Mood, do is the sign of the Present Tense, did of the Preterimpersect Tense, have of the Preterpersect, had of the Preterplupersect, shall and

will of the Future,

T.

h

h

In the Potential Mood, by the figns already given, the Present Tense by the figns may or can, the Preterimpersect would, should, could, or ought, and the Preterpersect, by annexing the fign have to the former Signs, and the Future, by adding bereaster to the signs of may or can, the Signs of the Present; as, I may or can bereaster, the Preterplupersect in this Mood is wanting in the English Tongue.

But in respect of Termination, there are no Moods but one, no Tenses but two, namely,

the Prefent, and Preterimperfect Tenies

And the Preterimperfect Tense is formed from the Present, by adding thereto the termination (ed) and in some few the termination (en) as of

love is formed loved, of fall, fallen, raginities

The Persons in every Tense are distinguished by the personal Pronouns, I, Thon, and He, in the Singular Number, and We, Te, They, in the Plural; only the Second Person Singular in the Present and Preterimpersect Tenses is formed from the first, by adding thereto the Termination est, as of love, lovest, of lovesty lovest; and the Third Person Singular in the Present Tense

The English Academy.

Tense is formed from the First, by adding there to the Termination (eth) as of love is formed loveth, other variations of Persons or Tenses there is none, but what is done by Signs, as was faid before.

A Verb Active then is thus formed in the Indicative Mood.

Present Tense. Sing. Love, lovest, loveth. Plur. Love. Infinitive, To love.

Preterimperfelt Tenfe. Sing. Loved, lovedst, loved. Plural. Loved.

This Verb Neuter, Am or Be is thus formed.

In the Present? Am, art, is,? Plur. Are. Tense. SBe, beest, be, S Plur. Bee.

In the Preterim- 2 Was, wast, was, 2 Plural. perfect Tenfe. S Were, wert, were, S Were, Infinitive In To be saw sales bon and

A Warb Paffive, is the fame throughout all Moods and Tenfes, with a Verb Newer, the Preterimperfect Tenfe of the Active Voice, being added thereunto; Thus the Passive Voice of this Verb Active, I love, is formed, by adding lovedito all the Tenfes and Perfons of this Verb Neuter, I am.

portrolar star For Example. The Present Tenfe of the Indicative Mood is thus formed ,

I am loved, Ye are loved, Thou art loved, He is loved.

cd

ics 25

di

be

21

11

d.

ıL,

C,

Ć

A Participle is a part of Speech, derived of Verb, from which it hath Signification, of Time present, past, or to come.

There are two Participles, one of the

Active, and another of the Passive Voice.

The Participle of the Active Voice is derived from its Verb, by adding the Termination (ing) to the Present Tenfe; as of love, loving.

The Participle of the Pallive Voice is for the most part, the same with the Preterimperfelt Tense of the Active; as the Participle of the Paffive Voice in this Verb love is loved.

From this General Rule many Verbt are 1120. Excepted, for of another abelt

(made Make word bot vov lead bereave fmell feek fought befeech belought chink wrought work buy bought ground grinde flood ftand

take, took, taken shake, shook, shaken bereft feeth, fod, fodden mele hear hore from rife, rofe, rifen . Sim belought give, gave, given thought firive, fire, fire, fire fing, fang, fung ded know, knew, known throw, threw, thrown llgo, went, gone,

Of these, see more in my School Pastime.

CHÁP. V.

Of Adverbs, Conjunctions, Prepositions, o be and Interjections, a sinding

lerb. from which it AN Adverb is a Word joyned to a Ventor Noun, to declare their Signification.

Some of Time, as when, now, then, to day. A.

Some of Number , as, how oft, once, twice. Some of Order, as, first, next, afterward.

Some of Place, as where, here, there.

Some of Affirming, as, yea, perhaps.

Some of Denying , as , no, not;

Some of Shewing, as, to, behold.

Some of Similitude, as, fo, how much, more.

A Conjunction is a part of Speech , which joyneth Words and Sentences together, of which thefe are fome, And, alfo, likewife, nor, neither, whether, or sither, but, for , &c.

A Prepofition, is a Word commonly fet be fore other parts of Speech, either in appolition, as before the Master, or in composition, as over-

C April

know, know, known

tinow, threw, thrown

LEO, Well, Polic,

An Inverjettion is a Word, expressing some fuddain passion of the Mind, ob, alass, O strange, ho, bark, firrah.

L gued

banors

bood!

AAHDie feemere in res School Parime.

grinde

3. Except Dorman Wells

Of Dividing of Words into Syllables, bob

Or the dividing of Words into Syllables there are four Rules.

1. Two Vowels which make no Dipthong ; must be divided; as, ie, in, in; as in qui-et, tri-

mph, mutu-al.

w,

50

劍

,

m

9

y-

7

8

1

.

2. Those Consonants which are doubled in he middle of a Word, must be divided; as in abba, accord, adder.

Except they be needlesly doubled, as in words

f the Plural Number; as in crabbs, rodds. W

Except such words in which they are douled for distinction sake; as in the words, Am, Cam, Im.

3. Rule. When a Confonant cometh be-

atter; as in a-vail, a-ni-mate.

But to this Rule there are four Exceptions.

of the Plural Number, and Verbs of the third person Singular, in which this particle is for the most part swallowed up, in the former Syllable, but in all proper Names, except Charles and tames, it makes a diffinct Syllable.

2. Except Words that are compounded of such Simple Words, as are fignificant apart, a which each Simple Word must retain its own letters; as, Tradefman, safe-guard, bence

forth. I ni hoviois

3. Except Derivative Words, whose addition to the Primitive, doth signific nothing of it self, in which the Primitive must be sounded by it self, and the addition by it self; a hope-less, lov-ing, joyn-ing, and such like.

4. Except such Words in which x comes between two Vowels, in which it must be joyned to the first Vowel; as, ox-en, ex-ercite

4. Rule. Any two or three Confonants, which may be joyned together in the beginning of a Word, are not to be separated in the middle; as in a-gree, be-stow, en-thrall, a struction: but in compounded Words, each simple Word must retain its own Letters.

When you are to write any hard long Word, mark how many founds or Syllables it hath, as if you were to write disdainfullness, universalitie, or the like, before you write it, by thus to your self; distainfull ness, universalitie, and you shall hardly miss in the writing thereof.

CHAP. VII.

Of Sentences, and such Distinctions, a Points as are to be used in Writing, and observed in Reading.

ned together in perfect Sense

The Stops or Points to be observed in Semen-

ces,

The Princey Points are these Light good on W

ting of two Vowels, which otherw (,) suit

2. A Colon, made with two points thus (10)1

little stroke under it thus (;)

net billion that

0位,1000年1

oy.

this (.) and is to be u (.) sud is to be u (.)

side ni sham provingorond to the ne (2) connam and the other part beginneth the ne (2) connam

whose note is a perpendicular right line, with a point under it thus (!)

Moons, inclohing a Sentence, which may be used or omitted, and yet the sentence time time, thus () . The sentence of the sentence is to be pronounced benefit is to be pronounced benefit.

tire, thus () .gnol bennounced of it is in it is to be pronounced long. () and is considered with the ball of the other towards the left, and is end the other towards the left, and is

The Secondary Points are thefe Sixo 10 00 01

I. An Apostrophe, which is a note, set on the top or side of a Letter, whereby two Syllables are contracted into one, and is made like a Comman this (1) as it's for it's.

The English Academy.

Princes are not wife, Who sleep themselves, and trust their servants Equ.

3. A Dieresis, which is a note for the parting of two Vowels, which otherwise might feem to make a Diphthong, and is made with two pricks over the two Vowells, thus, (") as in Lais.

4. An Hyphen, which is a note of continuation, made thus (-) and is to be used when one part of a word concludeth the former line, and the other part beginneth the next; or elfe, when two words are, by way of Elegancy, as it were joyned into one; as felf-love, for the love of ones felf.

4. An Accest which is a small stroak drawn flopewife towards the left-hand, thus, (') and is to be fet over that Syllable in a Word,

which is to be pronounced long.

6. A Circumflex, which is the joyning together of two oblique stroaks into one figure, one of them being made towards the right hand, and the other towards the left, and is to be fet over a Vowel, thus, (a) which is to be pronounced long, as in bite, wile, file, not in bit, will, fill.

The Accent in Words of many Syllables is commonly placed on the third Vowel from the

But Words ending in (ary) have the accent on the first Syllable; as temporary; Words that have many Confonants in the last Syllable fave one, have their accent on that Syllable, as in erérnal :

The English Academy!

eternal; Words ending in ire and are, have their accent in that Syllable; as inire.

A Now hath its accent in the first, a Verb in

the last Syllable; as absem, to absent.

So Humane, when it comes before a Substantive, as humane-learning; but in the last Syllable, when it comes after a Substantive, as Christ had two natures, the one divine, the other humane.

C 3

ht

() 即译 5

m-CE

ic, as he

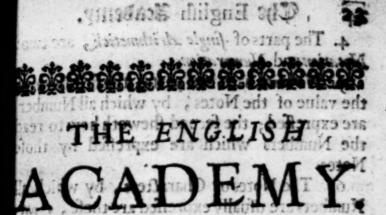
wn nd d,

is le,

is he

nt nat we in

The English Academy. 21 dinal; Words ending in ire and my have their accent in that Syllable; as inare. A Nego bath its accent in the first, a Feeb in metalt Syllable; as differe, to abfent. So Himmue, when it comes before a Subflime in , rell immediance learning; but in the last Sylla-Mesvillen it comes after a Substantive, as Christ led one matures, the one divine, the other THE SELECT RESIDEN



The SECOND PART.

OF ARITHMETICK

CHAP. T.

Of Single Arithmetick in whole

Rithmetick is the art of accompting by
Numbers it is either positive or ne

which is wrought by certain and intallible Numbers at first propounded; and this is either for gle or comparatives

confidered alone, without relation to one enorther, and this either in whole Numbers, or in fractions.

C 4

4. The

4. The parts of fingle Arithmetick, are to Notation and Numeration.

the value of the Notes, by which all Number are expressed; the second sheweth how to rethe Numbers which are expressed by the Notes.

6. The Notes or Characters, by which a Numbers are usually expressed are these, 1. 2. two, 3. three, 4. four, 5. sive, 6. six, 7. seven 8. eight, 9. nine, 0. nothing.

7. These Notes are either fignificant Figure

or a Cypher.

8. The fignificant Figures, are the first nine viz. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9. The first whereasts more particularly termed an unite or unite, the rest are said to be composed of unities; is 2, is composed of two unites; 3, of three unites, &cc.

of it self, yet being set before or after any of the rest, increaseth or decreaseth their value, as shall be further shewed hereafter.

ding of the Number expressed by these Notes and this is done by distinguishing the Number

given into Degrees and Periods.

first place of a Number towards the right hand, and is the place of Unity. The second is the second Figure towards the right hand, and this is the place of Tens. The third is the third Figure towards the right hand, and is the place

The English Mcabemy.

place of Hundreds; so this Character 9, doth ignisie Nine; these Notes 27, Twenty seven; and these 235, Two hundred thirty sive.

12. A Period, is when a number confifting of more Notes than three, hath each three Notes thereof (beginning at the right hand) diftinguished by Points or Commas: The several parts of the Numbers fo distinguished, are called Periods; fo the Number 38156249, being diftinguished into Periods, will ftand thus, 38.156.249. of which the first Period is read thus, Two hundred forty nine; the first Figure in the fecond Period is the place of Thousands, the fecond Tens of Thousands and the third Hundreds of Thousands. In the third Period, the Figure is in the place of Millions; the fecond Tens of Millions, and fo this Number is thus to be read. Thirty Eight Millions, One Hundred Fifty Six Thousand Two Hundred Forty Nine.

13. Numeration, is that which by certain known Numbers propounded, doth Ediscoves

another Number unknown,

eci ie i

e,

14. Numeration hath four Species, Addition,

Subtraction, Multiplication, and Division.

bers are added together, to the end that the Sum or Total may be discovered. For which purpose, having placed the Numbers as in the following Example, begin with those in the Unity place first, then with these in the place of Tens, then of Hundreds, and so forward, according as the Numbers given do con-

The English Beabenty.

fift of places, carrying the Tens, if there b any, to the place of the next greater rank, here you fee, mid be bound out . 25

472961	anna sa	15fler	3814	27
341608	is the	,391	45678	300
74325	MADE TO THE			
6739	2211711111	7 10 5	8163	64

899633

lo gui Notes -nimb

15748020

16. Subtraction is that, by which one Nu er is taken out of another, fo that the Refi que or remainder may be known. To perfor this you must rank your Numbers, and begin as in Addition; and in case any of the Figures of the Number to be Subtracted shall be greater than that, from whence the Subtraction is to be made, you must berrow one from the heit place above it; as in the Examples following Muchael Fortuit

wetain Sostain	and ai .	6549238
1900ib341695,		3814527

noith 1553938 and find 2734711 . ..

mily. Multiplication, is that by which we Multiply two Numbers, the one by the other, to the end, that their Product may be discovered.? 18. Multiplication hath three Parts, the Mulsiplicand, the Mulsiplicator, and the Pro-

1019. Multiplication, is Single or Compound. 20. Single Multiplication, is when the Mule tiplicand, iplicand, and Multiplicator, do each of them confift of one only Figure; as if a were given to be Multiplied by 6, 9 is the Multiplicand, is the Multiplicand,

Multiplicator and Multiplication, is when the Multiplicator and Multiplicand do either, or both confift of more Figures than one.

22. When the Product of any of the pariticular Figures thall exceed ten, place the Excels under the Line, and for every ten that it fo exceeds, keep in mind one to be added to the next rank : Example ; 76147, being to be Multiplyed by 5, the Product out in ad from is 180735, and 39634 being giant ani 39634 ven to be Multiplyed by 47, the 47 work will fland as in the Mario gin, where the Product by 277438 is 277438, and the Product: 158536 thereof by 40 is 1585369 and 1 the Sum of these two Products: 1862798 is 1862798.

23. Division is that by which we discover how often one Number is contained in another,

that we may find out the Quotient.

24. Division hath three Parts, the Dividend, the Divisor, and the Quotient; thus, if 35 were given to be Divided by 5, 35 is the Dividend, 5 the Divisor, and 7 will be found to be the Quotient.

end of your Dividend, that on the left hand ferving for your Dividend, and that on the right

1 4 B

3

d

for the Quotient; then see how oft your Differ is contained in the sirst Figure or Figure 1 your Dividend, and put the answer in the Quotient, then Multiply your Divisor by the regure in the Quotient, and the Product Surtract from your Dividend, then draw do not next Figure of your Dividend, and how oft your Divisor may be found in the mainer so increased, and the answer put in the Quotient, and proved as before, till there is no Figures lest in your Dividend, and so must be in the Quotient, as is manifest by the following Example.

ономпВ	047		tapiyed	M. W. W.	noric
27743	2 094	141	ine Pro	where	em,
158536	3 141	45	2 Dha	7458 ,	
	188	-	3 olbi	to mu	he, Si
	6 282	2	97 82	.8625	331 4
envoli5	7 329 8 376		deal .	Divis	23.
anocher	9 423		188	não 1191	OW OF
Amshire	Ladr on	out se	-00	Section Contraction	
	2	· department	ACCOUNT OF THE PARTY OF	10.30100	1
the said in	is the D	25.7	vo babiy	octor	d us

Let 1862708, be given to be divided by 47, I ask how often 47 may be had in 186? the Answer is 3, which I place in the Quotient, then I Multiply 47 by 3, the Product is 141, which being Subtracted from 186, the Remai-

The English Academy?

eris 45, to which draw down 2 the next Fiure in the Dividend, and then it will be 452,
ow then I ask how often 47 may be had in 452?
he which by the Table made by the continual
ddition of 47 unto it felf, is 9 times, thereore I place 9 in the Quotient, and the Product
f 47 is 423, which being Subtracted from
52, the Remainer is 29, to which I draw 7
he next Figure, and then proceed as before,
and fo at last I find the Quotient to be 39634.

26. Multiplication and Division, prove one nother, for if you Multiply the Quotient by the Divisor, the Product will be equal to the Dividend: so 39634, being Multiplied by 475 the Product is 1862798, and this Product being Divided by 47, the Quotient is 39634.

Divided intotom pois sad it

Shar to same area ast bluod Fasti

layers frican con court to the ries the

the great monner is clear, there at life, and the

pare, I write cuacer a inc. and g above it,

number responded: Where and, that the specked over the first is collect the Municipator, and the against out or war life the Denamb

A Transfer of the Property of Intitation

4

DividIT AAHS it will be 452

Of Single Arithmetick in Fractions.

Ingle Arithmetick in whole Numbers, Deen shewed in the last Chapter; Si Arithmetick in Fractions now followeth.

2. A Frattion is a part of an Integer,

3. Single Arithmetick in Fractions, doth to confift of two Parts, Notation, and Name ration.

- 4. Notation of Fractions, is that which showeth how the Fraction part of any Integer may be expressed in numbers; that is, an Integer on one whole thing being Divided into any Number of equal parts, Notation sheweth how these partsmay be expressed; as if a Yard were Divided into four parts, and it were defired, that I should fet down three of these parts; the usual manner is thus, draw a line, and set the Number of parts into which the Integer is fupposed to be Divided, under the line, and the number of parts you would express set above the line; thus to express three of four parts, I write 4 under a line, and 3 above it, thus, 1; and so may you do with any other number propounded: Where note, that the number above the line is called the Numerator. and the number under the line the Denominator.
 - 5. A Fraction is either Proper or Improper.
 - 6. A Proper Fraction is that whose Numera-

or is less than the Denominator, such as are hele 1 11 188.

7. A Proper Fraction is either flogle or com-

ound.

7

37

,

d

t

5

r

8. A Single Fraction is that which confids of one Numerator and one Denominator, fuch as

re 4 74 700.

9. A Compound Fraction (otherwise called a Fraction of a Fraction) is that which hath more Numerators and more Denominators than one which kind of Fractions are discoverable by this word (of) which is interposed between their parts; as, 3 of 4 is a Fraction of a Fraction or a Compound Fraction, and expressed two thirds of three fourths of an Integer.

10. The things expressed by broken Numbers or Fractions, are principally the Parts or Fractions of Money, Weight, Meafure, Time,

and things accounted by the Dozen.

11. The least part or Fraction of Money used in England is a Farthing; and four Farthings makes a Peny; twelve Pence, a Shilling; and twenty Shillings, one Pound Sterling.

12. The least Fraction of Weight used in England, is a Grain; that is, the Weight of a Grain of Wheat, well dryed and gathered out of the middle of the Ear, whereof 32 make a Peny Weight, and twenty Peny Weight an Ounce Troy, and twelve Ounces a Pound; but a Peny Weight being thus afcertained, it is now subdivided into twenty four Grains.

13. The Weights used by Aporbecaries are derived from a Pound Troy, which is fubdivi-

ded in this manner.

fb A Pound Troy, is — 12 Ounces.

3 An Ounce, is — 8 Drams.

3 A Dram, is — 3 Scruples.

3 A Scruple, is — 20 Grains.

14. Besides Troy Weight, there is anothe kind of Weight used in England, called Auralysis Weight, a Pound whereof is equal to fourteen Ounces, twelve peny Weight Troy, the which is subdivided into 16 Ounces, each Ounce into 16 Drams, and each Dram into 4 Quarters. Of this Weight 112 makes a Hundred.

15. The Measures used in England are of

Capacity or Length.

dry; Liquid Measures are according to this Table.

One pound of Wheat Cone Pint. Troy Weight One Quart. Two Pints Two Quarts One pottle. Two Pottles One Gallon. Eight Gallons One Firkin of Ale. Nine Gallons One Firkin of Bear. **Two Firkins** One Kilderkin. Two Kilderkins One Barrel. One Tearce of wine Forty two Gallons One Hogshead. Sixty three Gallons Two Hogsheads One Pipe or Butt. Two Pipes One Tun.

17. Dry Measures are those in which all kind of dry substances are Meted; as Grain, Seasoal, Salt, and the like; their Table is this hat solloweth.

COne Pint. One Pint One Quare Two Pints One Pottle. Two Quarts One Gallon. Two Pottles Two Gallons One Peck. Four Pecks I Bushel land measure. I Buthel water meafure Five Pecks Eight Bushels One Quarter. Four Quarters One Chaldron. Five Quarters One Wey.

18. Long Measures are expressed in the Table following.

Three Barley-Corns
in length
Twelve Inches
Three Foot
Three Foot
Three Foot
Three Foot
Six Foot
Five yards and an half
Forty Poles
Eight Furlongs
One Inch.
One Foot
One Yard.
One Fathom.
One pole or pearch.
One Furlong.
One English Mile.

Note that a Yard, as also an Ell is usually subdivided 34 The English Meademy.

divided into Four Quarters, and each Quan

into four Nails.

to. A Table of Time is this that follower

Sixty Minutes
Twenty four Hours
Seven Dayes
Four Weeks
Fifty two Weeks, One Day, and Six Hours

One Hour.
One Day natural.
One Week.
I month of 28 day
Fifty two Weeks, One Day, and Six Hours

make One Year.

And these Fractions of Money, Weight Measure, &c. are usually written under the several Denominations, instead of having the Denominators written under them thus;

lib. shill. pence. farth.
23. 19. 08. 3.

And as their Notation is two fold, so is the Numeration also; First, then I will shew you the Numeration of parts when written, as it tegers, and then as vulgar Fractions.

20. Numeration of parts when written,

Integers, is Accidental or Effential.

21. Accidental Numeration, otherwise alled Reduction, is either Descending or Asserting.

22. Reduction Descending, is when a Number of greater Denomination being given, is required, to find how many of a lesser Denomination, are equal in value to that given Number

ned by Multiplication; as if it were required o Reduce 329 Shillings into Pence, if you Multiply 329 by 20, the number of Shillings na Pound, the Product will be 6580 Shillings, and 6580 Shillings being Multiplied by 12, the number of Pence in a Shilling, the Product

will be 78960 Pence.

l.

100

23. Reduction Ascending, is when a Number of a lesser Denomination being given, it is required, to find how many of a greater Denomination, are equal to that given Number of the lesser: And this is done by Division; as if it were required to find how many Pounds there were in 78960 Pence; if 78960 Pence be Divided by 12, the Number of Pence in 2 Shilling, the Quotient will be 6580 Shillings, and if 6580 Shillings be Divided by 20, the Number of Shillings in a Pound, the Quotient will be 329 Pounds, and so for any other.

24. Essential Numeration, doth consist of four Species, Addition, Subtraction, Mul-

tiplication, and Division.

25. In Addition of Numbers of several Denominations, you must begin with the least first, and when the sum of any of the Denominations amounts to an Integer, add it to the next Denomination that is greater.

Denominations, won name lirfe reduce to

in whole Numbers, the Received Divided by the Square of the parts of an inchesses, reduced

Daniel Description Daniel Description of Example.

Example.

23:14:10:1	15 : 18 : 10
16:15:09:2	16:17:00
27:09:11:1 44:19:07:3	17:16:08
1112	Muc 78960 Icens
T13:00:02:3	69 ; 08 : 10

Denominations, when any of the parts of the greater Number are less than the parts of the lesser Number subscribed, Deduct the parts of the lesser Number from the parts of the greater increased with an Integer, of the next superiour Denomination, and keeping one in mind, add to the next place of the Number given the Subtracted.

Example.

44:13:07:1	69:08:07
25: 19: 11:3	42 : 19 : 11
18:13:07:2	26:08:08

27. In Multiplication of Numbers of fever Denominations, you must first reduce the Numbers given to their least Denomination and then Multiply them as hath been shewed in whole Numbers, the Product Divided by the Square of the parts of an Integer, reduced

the last Denomination, shall in the Quo-

vided by vor D v. slamx3

Let the Product of 17l. 19s. 6d. by l. 13s. 6d. be required. 17l. 19s. 6d. eing reduced to make 4314 Pence. And l. 13s. 6d. reduced do make 1362 Pence.

The Multiplicand 4314 wing tolive The Multiplicator 1362

25882 band s 12942 va lo nois 4314 banday

The Product. 5875668 (1 add 10)

The Number of Pence in a Pound are 240, and the Square thereof is 57600, by which Dividing 5875668 the Quotient; 102 like to shill. Ot peny. 3 farthings, and \$\$\frac{1}{2}\$ is the

Quotient fought.

TO

0

28. In Division of Numbers of several Denominations, first reduce your Divisor to its Number of parts in the least Denomination, then Multiply your Dividend, by the Square of the parts in an Integer reduced to the least Denomination; and if there be any parts annexed, to the Integers of the Dividend, they must be reduced to the highest Fraction, that the the Square of the parts in an Integer reduction its least Denomination will bear, and add to the former Product, the whole being wided by your Divisor reduced, will give with Quotient sought.

Example.

Let 102:00:01:3 \(\frac{460}{1760}\) be given to Divided by 5:13:6. First I reduce the Dividence of parts in the land Denomination, and it makes 1362 Penothen I Multiply 102 the Integral part of a Dividend, by \$7600, the square of Pence a Pound, the Product is 58752, and the faction of my Dividend 00:01:3 \(\frac{460}{1760}\) being added to the former Product 58752, the Sum is 587566 for the Dividend; which being divided to 1362, the Quotient is 4314 pence, that 17 liv. 19 shill. 6 pence.

with their Numerators and Denominators,

alfo Accidental and Effential.

30. Accidental Numeration, otherwise a

led Reduction, is three-fold.

ready in its least terms, to a lesser Denomination.

Todo this, divide the Numerator and Denominator by their greatest common measure the two Quotients shall be one of them, a no Numerator, and the other a new Denominator.

a Fraction equal to the Fraction given, and its leaft terms.

Example 117 being given to be Reduced, ne greatest common measure is 13, by which ividing or, the Quotient is 7, for a new lumerator, and Dividing 117 by 13, the Quotient is 9 for a new Denominator, and fo The greatest common measure between two

Fr en th 68

Numbers is found thus; Divide the greater Number by the less, and your Divisor by the Remainer, if there be any, your last Divisor s the common measure fought, as in the folowing Example.

> 91) 117 (t had has a table given much be light. It wine 26) 91 (3 monont bos . noit 78 13) 26 (2.

2. To Reduce many Fractions of divers Denominations into one Denomination.

To do this, Multiply each Numerator by all the Denominators except its own, the Products shall be the new Numerators, then Multiply all the Denominators together, and the Product shall be the common Denominator fought.

Ex-

Example. 3 4 6 will be reduced to

101 105

from To Reduce any Fraction from one Definitiation, to any other Denomination of fired. And to do this Multiply the Numer tor given, by the Denominator required, a Divide the Product by the Denominator gives the Quotient shall be the Numerator delited.

Example, let it be desired to Reduce is a Fraction, whose Denominator shall be 100 first Multiply 17 by 100, the Product is 1700 which being Divided by 20, the Quotient

85, for the new Numerator defired.

four Species, Addition, Subduction, Multi

plication and Division.

32. In Addition of Fractions, the Fraction given must be first Reduced to one Denomination, and then add the Numerators together so have you the Sum of the Fractions, so ; and a make 2.

Denomination, Deduct the less from the grater, their difference is the remainer, so a taken

from ; reft 5.

34. Multiplication of Fractions, is thus, Multiply all the Numerators together, so a their Product a new Numerator, then Multiply all the Denominators together, and their Product is a new Denominator.

Thus if 77 and & were to be Multiplied, the

Product will be 11.

35. Division of Fractions i, thus, Mu tiply

he Numerator of the Dividend by the Denopinator of the Divisor, the Product shall be a ew Numerator; also Multiply the Numerator f the Divisor, by the Denominator of the Dividend, fo shall the Product be a new Denoninator, and this new Fraction is the Quotint fought; fo if twere to be Divided by he Product will be

36. When the Denominator of a Fraction s an Unite with Cyphers, the Fraction is more particularly called a Decimal; and fuch Fraftionsmay be expressed without their Denominators as well as with them, thus, 15 may be

written thus,

0 4 8

5.6

00

700 nt i

hat fuls

ion in:

er;

and

one

C

kei

ıs,

b

cit

he

ty

37. When the Numerator doth not confift of to many Places, as the Denominator hath Cyphers, fill up the void places of the Numerator with Cyphers, fo, 700, 1000, are written thus, .05, and .025.

38. Numeration of Decimal Fractions, is likewise two fold, Accidental and Essential.

30. Accidental Numeration, otherwise called Reduction, is performed, by the third way of Reduction, shewed in the Twenty feventh Rule of this Chapter.

40. Effential Numeration, hath in it the four usual Species, Addition, Subtraction, Mul-

tiplication, and Division.

41. Addition of Decimals is the same with Addition of whole Numbers, if a point or line be fet between the Integers and the Parts, as in the following Examples.

2.00741	23.05678
.74258	16.14365
.96314	32.76108
3.71313	71.96151

42. Subduction of Decimals doth differ from Subduction in whole Numbers, but by a point to diftinguish the whole Number from the broken; as in the Example following.

25.07495 17.89637	36.01436	
7.17859	18.17847	

43. Multiplication of Decimal Fractions, is the same with Multiplication in whole Numbers, but when the work is finished, to diffinguish the Integers from the Decimals, do thus; so many places of parts as are in both the numbers given, being separated by a point, the rest of the Figures towards the left hand are Integers, and those towards the right are Decimal parts; as in these Examples.

7.08	17.37 3.72
9960 87150	3474
88.1460	5211
	64.6164

The English Academy.

44. Division of Decimal Fractions is the same with Division in whole numbers, but when the Work is finished, to distinguish the Fractional part from the Integers, observe this general Rule.

The first Figure in your Quotient will be alwayes of the same degree or place with that Figure or Cypher in your Dividend, which standeth over the Unites place in your Divisor,

For Example: 78927, being given to be divided by 32, the Quotient will be 2466, and because the place of Unites in the Divisor, doth stand under the place of seconds in the Dividend, therefore the first Figure in the Quotient, will be in the place of seconds, and the sirst must be supplied with a Cypher, and then the Quotient will be 0.02466.

Melekon to Connitive coulds chier in

the difference. Or in the rate or realon to the

graves the Number propounded a die ripe in lound by Sibness og the Jelen om en en gennern

officer to wire the face or reales, is found for

Dividing the greater by the lety, and thus the

fund by Daviding the less by the presters to less and the Numbers given in manner of Profilers and thus the rate between a surb

This factor of scaling of districts is either freeze as the felation

fritty (1889)

éd

m di

do

d

ıt,

X-

a a plusació , bior moi es a ima 8 200 CHAP.

CHAP. III.

Of Comparative Arithmetick,

Hus much hath been faid concerning Sin gle Arithmetick, Comparative follows which is wrought by Numbers, as they in confidered to have relation to one another.

2. This Relation confifts either in Quantity

or in Quality.

3. Relation in Quantity is the reference that the Numbers themselves have one to another; a when the Comparison is made between 8 and 2, or 2 and 8; 7 and 3, or 3 and 7.

And here the Numbers propounded are al-

wayes two, whereof the first is called the

Antecedent, the other the Confequent.

4. Relation in Quantity, consists either in the difference, or in the rate or reason found between the Numbers propounded; the one is found by Subtracting the less from the greater; fo 6 is the difference between 8 and 2; but the other, to wit, the rate or reason, is found by Dividing the greater by the less, and thus the rate between 8 and 2 is four-fold, because 2 is found four times in 8; Or the rate may be also found by Dividing the less by the greater, or fetting the Numbers given in manner of a Fraction, and thus the rate between 2 and 8 is 4 alfo, or \$ that is 1.

5. This rate or reason of Numbers is either Equal or unequal; Equal reason, is the relation

hat Equal Numbers have one to another, as 5 105, 6 to 6. Unequal Reason is the relation that Unequal Numbers have one to another, and this is either of the greater to the less, or of the less unto the greater.

In the one the greater Number is the Anteredent, and the less the Consequent; and in the other the lesser Number is the Antecedent,

and the greater is the Confequent.

6. Relation in Quality, (otherwise called Proportion) is the reference or respect that the reasons of Numbers have one to another, and therefore the numbers must be more than two, or else there cannot be the comparing of reasons in the Plural Number.

7. Proportion is two fold, Arithmetical

and Geometrical.

ity

2

1

in

nd

r;

k

ny hc

So

30

8

n

at

8. Arithmetical proportion, is when Numbers differ according to equal reason; that is, have equal differences; as, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, or 3, 6, 9, 12, in the first rank the common difference is 2, and in the second 3.

9. Arithmetical proportion, is either con-

tinued, or interrupted.

when divers numbers are linked together by a continued Progression of equal difference: and in such a Progression, the sum of the sirst and last Terms being Multiplied by half the number of the Terms, the Product will be the sum of all the Terms; as in this Progression, 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12, the sum of the sirst and last is 13, which being Multiplied

plied by 6, half the number of the Term the Product is 78, the fum of all the terms

that Progression.

tical proportion, the Mean number being de bled is equal to the sum of the Extreams; is 3, 6, 9, being given, the double of 6, the mean number is equal to the sum of 3 and 3 the two Extreams.

12. Arithmetical Proportion Interrupted, is when the Progression is discontinued, as

these numbers, 2, 4, 8, 10.

or discontinued, the sum of the Means is equito the sum of the Extreams, as in 3, 6, 9, 12, being given, the sum of 6 and 9 is equal to the sum of 3 and 12; or 3, 6, 12, 15, being given, the sum of 6 and 12, is equal to the sum of 3 and 15.

14. Geometrical Proportion is, when de vers numbers differ by the like reason; as, 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, which differ one from another by double reason; for as 1 is the half of 2, so 21

the half of 4, 4 of 8, 8 of 16.

15. Geometrical proportion is either continued or interrupted, Geometrical proportion continued, is when divers numbers are linked together, by a continued Progression of the like reason; as, 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, or 3, 6, 12, 24, 48.

If you Multiply the last Term by the commerate by which they differ, and from the Pro-

dua

The English Academy,

4

1000000

nti

ked the 12,

47

national Deduct the first Term, and Divide the Renainer by the former rate less by an Unite, the Quotient shall be the sum of all the Progressians; So 2, 6, 18, 54, 162, 486, 1458, being propounded the last Term 1460, being multiplied by 3 the rate, the Product is 4374 out of which deducting 2 the first Term, the Remainer \$4372, which being Divided by 2 the rate less one, the Quotient 2186 is the sum of that Progression.

17. Three Proportionals being given, the Square of the Mean is equal to the Product of the Extreams; so 4, 8, 16, being given, the Square of 8 is equal to four times 16. = 64.

18. Geometrical Proportion interrupted, is when the Progression of like reason is discontinued; as, 2, 4, 16, 32, where the Term between 4 and 16 is wanting, and therefore the rate between 4 and 16 is not the same that is between 2 and 4, or 16 and 32.

19. Four Proportional Numbers whatfoever being given, the Product of the two Means is equal to the Product of the two Extreams; so 2, 4, 16, 32, being propounded, 4 times 16 is

until out to distinct the Commit

delle four beet fordined still

equal to 2 times 32, which is 64.

signation and the white and was single

CHAP.

The English Jeabetty.

orla consider CHAP. TV

Of the Rule of Proportion, or Rule of Three.

Rom the last Rule of the former Chap ariseth that precious Gem in Arithment the Rule of three, which for its excellent deserves the name that is given to it, I Golden Rule.

2. The Golden Rule, is that by which cere numbers being given, another number Go metrically proportional to them may be for out.

7. The Golden Rule is either Single or Co

numbers are propounded, and a fourth in proportion to them is defired.

of two Denominations; two of the Ten propounded have one Denomination, the this propounded and fourth required, have another

6. Of those two numbers given which are one Denomination, that which moves the Quantion must possess the third place, the one number of the same Denomination, must be pain the first place, and consequently, the one known Term, which is of the same Denomination with the fourth required, must present the second place.

7. The three Terms propounded being the

heed, confider whether your third doth reuire more or less; if it requires more, Mil iply the middle number by the greater of the wo Extreams, and Divide the Product by the effer, the Quotient is the fourth Number of erm defired.

But if the third Term in the Question remire lefs, Multiply the middle Term by the effer of the two Extreams, and the Product Divide by the greater, the Quotient shall be the fourth Term desired; An Example in each Cafe will futficiently explain the Rule.

If 7 Pound of Sugar coft 2s. 7d. What hall 28 Pound of Sugar coft? The Terms must He Compound Rule of Tiree, is wint back rhan three Terms are propound

15 fugar. s. d. 15 fugar 15 p 2 47 10 28 no 19 10 28 no Kenter

divers Rules of plural proportion Where it is plain , that 28 pound of Sugar must needs cost more than 7, therefore I Mull tiply 2s. 7d. or 31 pence, by 28, the Proper duct 868 being Divided by 7 and the Quotient is 124d or 10 s. 4d. and in a strong own to find

a Demand with the Suppolition is expi 2. Example: If 7 Men will digg a Garden in 31 Dayes, In how many Dayes will 28 Men digg the fame Garden? Here the Terms must cing of the Terms; for which obter euch bash the Terms of Supposition, which of them

Men. at Dayet. Men. omit of red, refer82 ther for the found prices E

And

30 Che English Academy.

And by the state of the Question it plant appears, that the third Term requireth less therefore I Multiply 31, the middle Term, by, the lesser Extream, and the Product 21 being Divided by 28, the Quotient 7 11 is in fourth Term desired.

CHAP. V.

Of the Compound Rule of Three.

The Compound Rule of Three, is when more than three Terms are propounded.

2. Under the Compound Rule of Three is comprehended the Double Rule of Three, and

divers Rules of plural proportion.

Terms are propounded, and a fixth in proportion

to them is required.

cing of the Terms; for which observe amongst the Terms of Supposition, which of them hath the same Denomination with the Term required, reserve that for the second place, and write

rite the other two Terms in the Supposition eabove another in the first place; and lastly, e Terms of Demand one above another, likele in the third place, in such fort, that the permost may have the same Denomination the the uppermost of those in the first place.

Example.

If 6 Clerks can write 45 sheets of Paper in 5 ayes; How many Clerks can write 300 sheets 72 Dayes? Here the Question is concerning e number of Clerks, the 6 Clerks must erefore possess the second place, and the ayes and Paper in the Supposition must be set the first, one over the other, of which, if aper be the uppermost in the other Terms, the aper must be set over the Dayes in the third ace, and then the Number in the Question ill stand thus,

370

ve on

0.

3 3

i

Æ

h

đ

e

6. The Terms propounded being thus placed, in Question may be resolved by two Single ules of Three, in this manner.

1. As the uppermost Term of the first place to the middle, so is the uppermost Term in

he last place to a fourth Number.

2. As the lower Term of the first place is to hat fourth Number, so is the lower Term of he last place to the Term required.

But in both these Proportions, considera-

tion must be had to the Term required, not ly, whether it must be more or less than

middle Term given.

In our present Question, the fourth To in the first Proportion must be greater than a second; for it is plain, that more work will quire more men; therefore I say,

as 45 . 6 :: 300 . 40 Clerks.

But in the second Proportion, it is likewing plain, that the more Time is given, the sempersons are required; and therefore in this proportion, 5. 40. 13. I multiply the mid Term by the sirst, and the Product 200 I did by 13, the last, and the Quotient is 15 13.

2. Example: If 100 l, gain 6 l. in 12 month What shall 276 l. gain in 18 months? In the Question the Terms must be thus placed.

CONTRACTOR IN THE STREET

Middle and the Tire required,

1. 100 . 6 :: 276 . 16 . 56.

2. 12 . 16 . 56 :: 18 . 24 . 84.

to deep room the one of the closeste

or a some fire and the sold and a sold and

to deal remail out and analis CHA

CHAP. VI.

Of the Rule of Fellowship.

The Rules of Plural proportion are those, by which we Resolve Questions that are scoverable by more Rules of Three than one, id cannot be performed by the Double Rule. Three mentioned in the last Chapter.

Of these Rules there are divers kinds and drieties, according to the nature of the Quesion propounded; I will only mention one, ad refer the rest to my larger Treatise of this abject.

2. The Rule of Plural proportion that I can to mention, is the Rule of Fellowship.

3. And the Rule of Fellowship is that by hich in Accompts amongst divers Men, (their everal Stocks together) the whole Loss or Gain eing propounded, the Loss or Gain of each articular Man may be discovered.

4. The Rule of Fellowship is either Single or Double.

5. The Single Rule of Fellowship is, when the tocks propounded are Single numbers; As in his Example: A and B were Partners in an Adventure to Sea, A put in 25 l. B 56, and pon return of the Ship, they sold the Fraight or 50 l. profit; the Question is, What part of his 50 l. is due to A, and what to B? To resolve this and the like Questions, the Sum of the

54 The English Academy.

the Stocks must be the first Term in the R of Three, the whole gain the second, a each particular Stock the third; this done, peating the Rule of Three, as often as the are particular Stocks in the Question, fourth Term produced by these several openions are the respective Gains or Losses of the particular Stocks propounded; so in the presequential of the Resolution will be as here y see.

81 . 50 :: 25 } 15 · 432.

the Stocks propounded are double number that is, when each Stock hath relation to particular time. A, B, and C, hire a piece Ground for 45 l. per Annum, in which Ah 24 Oxen 32 Daies, B 12, for 48 Daies, Ci for 24 Daies; now the Question to be reson is, What part of the Rent each person must person to the stock of th

For this purpose you must first Multiply as particular Stock by its respective Time, as take the Total of their Products for the first Term, the Gain or Loss for the second, as every mans particular Stock and Time for the third; this done, repeating the Rule of The so often as there are Products of the double Numbers; the fourth Terms produced upon those several operations are the numbers sought So then in the Question propounded, the Product of 24 and 32 is 768; the Product of

2 and 48 is 576, and the Product of 16 and 4 is 384, the Sum of these Products is 1728, thich is the first Term, 45 l. the Rent is the cond, and each particular Product the hird;

ic R

1,

ne,

ope

refere

By which three Operations the Question is Resolved.

FINIS.

Che English Beadem?. 55 rand 48 is 776, and the Procude of 16 and Misso4, the Sum of thele Products is 1728, which is the first Term, 45 L the Rent is the Brond., and each, particular Product the 768 . 20. 576 . 15. 284 . 10. By which three Operations the Question is By a Sincof Right Sines to make the lines of Secants & Jangent. laccount concenters or (30 4 Car 21 Jang : 11 p dred Sour (a) To the second of police . FINIS.

Point is an individuale Sign in Magni-

The English Ambany."

THE ENGLISH

ACADEMY:

The THIRD PART.

, or Circular Line, is that OF GEOMETRY. comprehended fonce, which middle is called

tre and the Circu. 1 . TA HO

Of the Definition and Division

EOMETRY is the Art of Meafus and an dan The Subject of Geometry is Magvisinimitude, or dontinued Quantity, whole perts are joyned together by a common Term or limit.

13. Magnitude is either a Line, on Comething made of a Line os Lines tona moditive to nidely

4 A Line is a Magnitude, confifting only of Length, without either Breadth or Thickness, the Term or limit whereof is a Point

5. A Point is an indivisible Sign in Magnitude. A Point therefore is no quantity, but the beginning of all continued quantities, which are divisible in power infinitely.

6. A Line is either confidered Simply by it felf, or else comparatively with another Line.

7. A Line confidered fimply of it self is either Right or Oblique.

8. A Right line, is that which lyeth equally

between his Points.

9. An Oblique line, is either circular or

10. A Periphery, or Circular Line, is that which is equally diftant from the middle of the comprehended space, which middle is called the Centre, and the distance between that Centre and the Circumserence, is called the Radim.

11. Lines compared to one another are of

the same or different Species.

12. Lines compared together of the fame

Species, are either Parallel or Angular.

13. Parallel lines, are fuch as are equally diftant in all places, and are either Right lined Parallels, or Circular.

14. Right lined Parallels, are such as being in one and the self same plane, and infinitely produced on both sides, do never meet in any part.

15. A Circular Parallel is a Circle drawn

within or without another Circle.

16. Angular lines are fuch as inclinining, or bowing to one another, touch one another, but not in a direct Line.

n

17. An Angle is either Right or Oblique.

18. A Right Angle, is that whose legs or sides

are Perpendicular to one another.

19. An Oblique Angle, is that whose legs or sides do incline to one another upon one side more than upon another.

20. An Oblique Angle is either Acute, or

Obtuse.

İ

10

21. An Acute Oblique Angle, is that which is less than a Right.

22. An Obruse Oblique Angle, is that which

is greater than a Right Angle.

- 23. The Measure of an Angle, is the Arch of a Circle described upon the Angular Point, and intersected between the sides of the Angle sufficiently prolonged; but of this Measure there can be no certain knowledge, unless the quantity of that Arch be expressed in Numbers.
- 24. Every Circle therefore is supposed to be divided into 360 equal parts, called Degrees, and every Degree into 60 Minutes, and every Minute into 60 Seconds, and so forward; others suppose every Degree to be subdivided into 10 parts, and every one of these into 10 more, and so forward, as far as you please.

25. A Semi-circle is the half of a whole

Circle, and containeth 180 Degrees.

is 90 Degrees; and seeing that a Right Line falling Perpendicularly upon a Right Line, doth make the Angles on both sides equal, and cutteth a Semi-circle into two equal parts, the fourth

fourth part of a Circle, or 90 Degrees, mut needs be the Measure of a Right Angle.

27. Thus are Lines compared with Lines of the same Species, the comparing of Lines of different Species, is the comparing of Right Lines with those that are Oblique or Circular.

28. And Right Lines, as they have reference to, or are compared with the Circumference of a Circle, are either such as are inscribed

within it, or applyed to it, 100 and 1.

29. A Right Line, inscribed in a Circle, either passeth through the Centre, as the Diameter and Radius, or is drawn besides the Centre, as Chords and Sines.

30. A Diameter, is a Right Line inscribed through the Centre of the Circle, dividing the

Circle into two equal parts.

31. The Radius of a Circle is the one half of the Diameter, or a Right Line drawn from the Centre to the Circumference; thus the Right Line G B D, in Fig. 1. is a Diameter, GB, or B D, the Radius.

32. A Chord or Subtense, is an inscribed Right Line drawn through or besides the Centre bounded at both ends with the Circum-

ference.

33. A Chord or Subtenfe, drawn through the

Centre is the same with the Diameter.

34. A Chord or Subtense, drawn besides the Centre, is a Right Line bounded at both ends with the Circumference, but alwayes less than the Diameter.

35. Sines are either Right or Versed.

36. A Right Sine is half the Chord of the Double Arch, and it is either the whole Sine, and Sine of 90 Deg. or Sine less than the whole.

37. The whole Sine is equal to the Semidiameter or Radius of a Circle, as the Right

Line B E.

of

g.

tè.

t

38. A Sine less than whole, is half the Chord of any Arch less than a Semi-circle; as CA is

the Sine of C D.

lying between the Right Sine and the Circumference, as the Right Line AD, which is one part of the Diameter, is the Versed Sine of the Arch CD, and the Right Line AG, which is the other part of the Diameter, is the Versed Sine of the Arch CEG.

40. A Right line applied to a Circle, is either

a Tangent or Secant.

41. A Tangent, is a Right Line without but touching the Circle, drawn Perpendicular to the end of the Radius or Diameter, continued to the Secant.

42. A Secant, is a Right Line drawn from the Centre of the Circle, through the Term of an Arch, and continued to the Tangent; Thus the Right Line F D, is the Tangent, and the Right Line BF, is the Secant of the Arch C D, or of the Arch C E G, the Complement thereof to a Semi-circle.

43. These Lines thus inscribed in, or applyed to a Circle, may to any limited Radius be drawn or made upon a Rule of Wood, Brass, or other

Metal

Metal; or, a Table may be made, expressing the Length of these Lines in numbers, answering to every Degree and part of a Degree in the Quadrant or Semi-circle; That is, the Lines of Chords and Versed Sines may be made to any part of a Semi-circle, and the Lines of Sines, Tangents and Secants, to any part of a Quadrant: The use of such Scales and Tables, that no Student in Geometrie can well be without them; here therefore I will lay down fuch Propositions as will sufficiently demonstrate the way of making these Lines upon a Scale or Ruler, but as to the construction of the Tables by which the lengths of these Lines are expressed in Numbers : I refer them to my Trigonometria Britannica, and other Books of the like nature.

n i

Proposition I.

Upon a Right Line given, to erest a Perpendicular, from any Point affigned:

Let it be required to erect a Perpendicular to the Line DG, from the Point B, in Fig. 2: take two equidificant Points, as D and G, open your Compasses to a convenient distance, and setting one Foot of your Compasses in B, draw the Arch EC, and keeping your Compasses at the same distance, set one Foot in G, and with the other draw the Arch HIF, and through the Intersections of these two Arches draw a Right Line, as BL, which shall be perpendicular to the Point B.

But if it were required to erect a Perpendiular from the end of a Line, do thus, your compasses being opened to any convenient ditance, set one Foot in the Point given, as at A, in the Line AB, and the other at D, or where ou please, and making D the Centre, draw the arch CAE, and from the points C and D, draw the Right Line CDE, then draw the Line AC, which shall be Perpendicular to the Line AB, rom the point A, as was required.

Proposition II.

t

t

From a Point assigned without a Right Line gien, tolet fall a Perpendicular.

Let the given Line be DG, and let the point signed be L, at the distance of LD draw the arch DAGF, then setting one Foot of your compasses in D, draw the Arch IK, and keeing your Compasses at the same distance, set me Foot in G, and with the other draw the Arch M, the Right Line LBD, drawn through the Intersections of those two Arches shall be expendicular to DG, from the Point L, as as required.

But if it were required to let fall a Perpenicular from the point E, upon the Line AB, raw the Line ED Cat pleasure, which being isected at D, upon D as a Centre at the distance if ED, draw the Arch EAC, so shall the ine EA be Perpendicular to AB, as was renited.

Propo-

Ent if it were required to each a Per surfrom the All control do thus

To Divide a Right Line given into any No ber of equal pares.

Draw the Line AC, and from the points and C erect the Perpendiculars AB and YC and at any distance of the Compasses, set of a many equal parts as you please upon the Perpendiculars AE, and XC, and draw the Paralle Lines EX, FV, GT, HS, KR, LQ, MP, as NO; And let it be required to Divide the Right Line into three equal parts, open you Compasses to the length of the Line given, as setting one Foot in A, where the other for shall touch the third Parallel, make a man which is at Z, draw the Line AZ, so shall the Line AZ be Divided into three equal parts, was defired.

And thus may that Line be made, which commonly called the Diagonal Scale.

Proposition IV.

How to Divide a Circle into 126 Parts, a by consequence into 360.

Draw the Diameter BC, and upon the point A, describe the Circle CDBL, then draw the Diameter DAN, at Right Angles, to the Diameter CAB.

2. The Semidiameter or Radius of a City

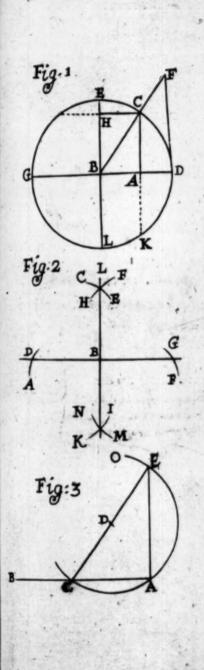
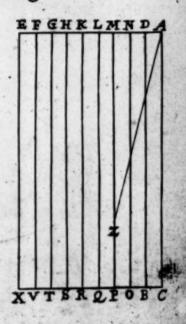
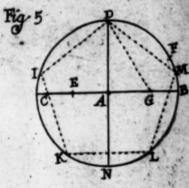
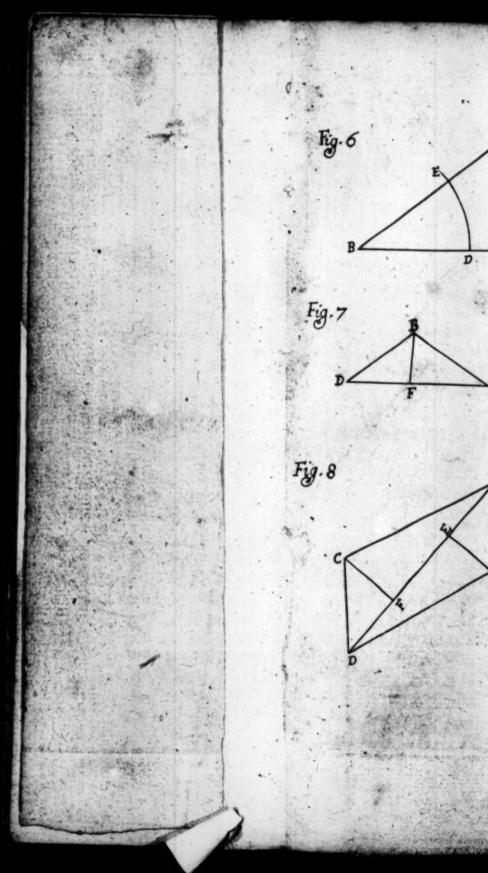


Fig.4

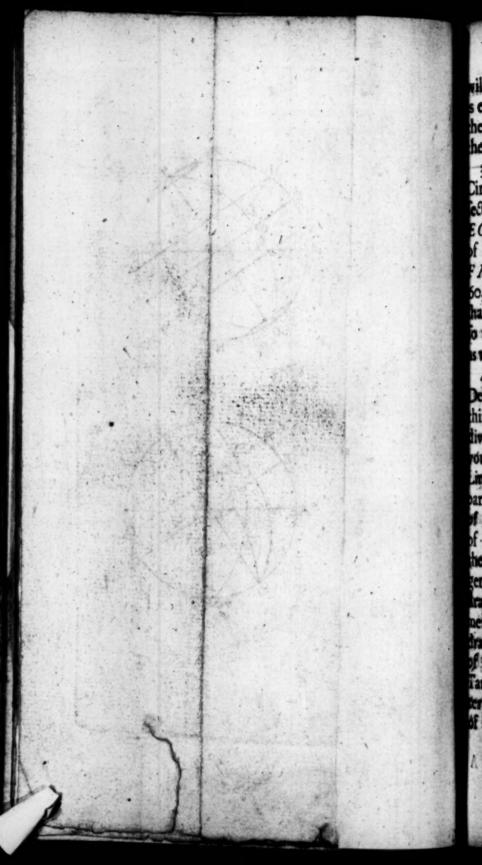




Ŧ



D Fig. to



ill divide the Circle into 6 equal parts, and fo equal to the Chord of 60 Degrees, AC. herefore being fet from D to F, shall mark out

he Arch DF, 60 Degrees.

3. The fide of a Pemagon or fifth part of a Circle, is 72 Degrees; now then, if you bieft the Radius AC in the point E, and make EG = ED; then shall DG = DM, the fide f a Pentagon or Chord of 72 Degrees, and Mthe difference between DM, 72 and DE o, that is the Chord of 12, which by bifection hall give the Chord of 6 and 3 Degrees and o the Circle may be Divided into 120 parts. recombilered of themic

s was propounded.

4. A Circle being thus divided into 120 Degrees, the Arches are fo equal, that the hird part of the Chord of a Degrees will fub. ivide it into 38, without fentible errour; and our Circle being thus Divided into 3 60 parts mes acevery Degree, or half Degree, drawn arallel to the Diameter, shall constitute the Line Chords, and half those Chords, the Line f Sines; and the Segments of the Diameter, beline of Werled Sines, and as for the Tancents and Secants, a Line touching the Circle lawn perpendicular to the end of the Diameter, and continued to the feveral Lines from from the Genere, through every Degree of the Quadrant, Thall confirmit the Line of rangents, and those Lineadrawn from the Center to the Tangents of shall constitute the Line of Secants also made that may a Scale be consulted to the Line of Secants also make the Line of Secants and the consulted the consulted to the consulted

The English Academie.

66

and equal parts.

II .. A HOR E, and make

Of Right Lined Triangles.

HI Itherto we have spoken of the first kind of Magnitude, that is, of Lines, as they are considered of themselves, or among themselves.

2. The second kind of Magnitude, is that

which is made of Lines, that is a Figure.

bounded, whether it be with one only limit a Circle; or with more, as a Triangle, Quardrangle, Pyramis, or Cube, &c.

4. The terms or limits of every Figure at

either Lines or Superficies.

id the i ment won the

is a Superficies.

6. A Figure, which is bounded or limited with feveral Superficies, is a Body or Solid.

7. A Superficies is a Magnitude, confifting of length and breadth, and is either Right Lined, Curve Lined, or composed of both.

8. A Right Lined Plane or Superficies, is that which is Terminated with Right Lines; and it is either a Triangle, or a Triangulate.

9. A

gui

Ri

the

th

eq

21

is

ha

21

15

69

gure, is that which is comprehended by three Right Lines. It is distinguished from the Sides, or from the Angles.

10. In respect of the Sides, a Triangle is ei-

ther Isopleuron, Isosceles, or Scalenum.

An Isopleuron Triangle, is that which hath three equal sides. An Isosceles, which hath two equal sides. And a Scalenum, whose three sides are all unequal.

11. In respect of the Angles, a Triangle

is either Right or Oblique.

12. A Right Angled Triangle, is that which

hath one Right line.

13. An Oblique Angled plane Triangle, is either Acute or Obtuse.

14. An Oblique and Obtuse Angled plane Triangle, hath two Acute Angles and one Obtuse; an Acute angled Triangle hath all the three Angles Acute.

is called a Triangulate, or a Plane, composed of

Triangles.

¢

16. The fides of a Triangulate, are in number more by two than the Triangles, of which it is composed.

17. A Triangulate, is either a Quadrangle, or

Multangle.

18. A Quadrangle, is a Plane comprehended, by four Right lines, and is either a Parallelogram or a Trapezium.

19. A Parallelogram, is a Quadrangle, whose oppor

ordinate and irregular.

(1

Che English Academy.

66

and equal parts.

roly then, is

.II .A HOE E, cod make

Of Right Lined Triangles.

Hof Magnitude, that is, of Lines, as they are considered of themselves, or among themselves.

2. The fecond kind of Magnitude, is that

which is made of Lines, that is a Figure.

3. A Figure is that which is every when bounded, whether it be with one only limit a a Circle; or with more, as a Triangle, Qur drangle, Pyramis, or Cube, &c.

4. The terms or limits of every Figure at

either Lines or Superficies.

is a Superficies.

6. A Figure, which is bounded or limited with feveral Superficies, is a Body or Solid.

7. A Superficies is a Magnitude, confifting of length and breadth, and is either Right Lined, Curve Lined, or composed of both.

8. A Right Lined Plane or Superficies, is that which is Terminated with Right Lines; and it is either a Triangle, or a Triangulate.

9. A

gu Ri

or

the

th

eq

is

h

-

21

15

69

9. A Triangle, or the first Right lined Figure, is that which is comprehended by three Right Lines. It is distinguished from the Sides, or from the Angles.

10. In respect of the Sides, a Triangle is ei-

ther Isopleuron, Isofceles, or Scalenum.

An Isopleuron Triangle, is that which hath three equal sides. An Isosceles, which hath two equal sides. And a Scalenum, whose three sides are all unequal.

11. In respect of the Angles, a Triangle

is either Right or Oblique.

12. A Right Angled Triangle, is that which

hath one Right line.

13. An Oblique Angled plane Triangle, is either Acute or Obtuse.

angle, hath two Acute Angles and one Obtule; an Acute angled Triangle hath all the three Angles Acute.

15. The second fort of Right lined Planes is called a Triangulate, or a Plane, composed of

Triangles.

at

ľ

2

¢

16. The fides of a Triangulate, are in number more by two than the Triangles, of which it is composed.

17. A Triangulate, is either a Quadrangle, or

Multangle.

18. A Quadrangle, is a Plane comprehended, by four Right lines, and is either a Parallelogram or a Trapez sum.

19. A Parallelogram, is a Quadrangle, whose oppor

ordinate and irregular.

Cit

. 3

en

3

152

bo

Co

0

opposite sides are Parallel or Equidistant, and it is either Right Angled or Oblique.

which hath every Angle Right; and it is either a Square or an Oblong.

21. A Square, is a Right Angled Parallele gram, whole four fides are equal, and the Angled

gles Right.

68

gram, whose Angles are all right, but the Side unequal.

23. An Oblique angled Parallelogram, is that whose Angles are all Oblique, and is either a Rhombus, or a Rhomboides.

24. A Rhombus, is an Oblique Angled Paral

lelogram, of equal Sides.

25. A Rhomboides, is an Oblique angled Para

lelogram of unequal Sides.

26. A Trapezium, is a Quadrangle, but noti Parallelogram, and it is either Right angled, or Oblique

27. A Right Angled Trapezison, hath two opposite Sides, parallel, but unequal, and the

fides between them perpendicular.

drangle, but not a Parallelogram, having a least two Angles thereof Oblique, and none of the Sides Parallel.

29. A Right angled Mideangled Plane, is that which is comprehended by more than four

Lines.

30. A Multangled Right lined Plane, or Pulygon, is either Ordinate and Regular, or Inordinate and irregular.

31. Ordinate and Ragulate Polygons, are fuch sare contained by equal Sides and Angles, as a unagon, Hexagon, Occ.

32. Inordinate or Irregular Polygons, are such sare contained by unequal Sides and Angles.

32. Having thus showed what a Right litted figure is, with the several forts of them, we will now show, how they may be Measured, both in respect of the Lines by which they are bounded, and also of their Area or Superficial Content.

33. And first we will shew how the Lines and Angles of all plane Figures, especially Triangles, may be Measured, as being the first and chiefest of them, and into which all other may be reduced.

other plane Figures, are to be Measured by the Scale or Line of equal Parts.

35. The Angles may be Measured by the lines of Sines, Tangents, or Secares, as well as by the line of chords; but here it shall fusfice to them how any Angle may be protracted, or being protracted, be Measured by the line of Chords

Example will be to use an Deprece. .vino

ek.

An

10

de

hat

1

1

d

Thefe things propalled and will now flav you how all place I miggeryly be Medical,

How to protrail or by down on Angle to long quantity or number of Degrees proposed. anapas i

Draw a line at pleasure at AB, then open your Compasses to the number of 60 Degrees

F 3

in your line of Chords, and festing one of that extent in B, with the other describe the Ard CD, and from the point B, let it be required to make an Angle of 40 Degrees; open your Compaffes to that extent in the line of Chords and fetting one Foot in D, with the other make a mark as at E, and draw the line EB, fo fhall the Angle ABE contain 40 Degrees, as was required. danly ve and. b tooks bas .

0

fo

Proposition II.

How to find the quantity of any Angle already

Let the quantity of the Angle ABE, be required; open your Compafies in the line of Chords, from the beginning thereof to 60 Degrees, and fetting one foor thereof in the point B, with the other describe the Arch DE, then take in your Compasses the distance be tween E and D, and applying that extent to the line of Chords, it will thew you the number of Degrees contained in that Angle, which in our Example will be found to be 40 Degrees.

These things premised, we will now shew you how all plane Triangles may be Meafured, in respect of their Sides and Angles, both by the Scale, and also by the Tables of Sines and Tangents.

Drawa line at planting area at, they open rest Cladio radicate one or subsquiCHAP! CHAP. III.

rd

to

our rds,

12

ę.

0

of the Solution or Mensuration of plane Triangles.

In the Right angled plane Triangle on EG, IN the Solution of plane Triangles, the And gles only being given, the Sides cannot be found, but the reason of the Sides only; it is therefore necessary, that one of the Sides be known.

2. In all plane Triangles, the three Angles are equal to two Right: two Angles therefore be ing given, the third is also given; and one of them being given, the fum of the other two is allo given. The the and draw the line B C.

3. In a Right angled plane Triangle, one of the Acute Angles being given, the other is also given, it being the Complement of the other to a Quadrant or 90 Degrees.

4. In a Right angled plane Triangle, there are feven Cafes, whose Solution shall be showed in the Problems following.

5. The Sides comprehending the Right angle we call the Legs, and the subtending the Right angle, we call the Hypothenufe.

The Author follows the division of the Lucid rant laid down in his Juganometria Butanquea 19

the Lindrant into go and each dique into 100 parts or minutes.

Problem 1.

fro

古山

the

M

The Legs given, to find an Angle and the Hypothenuse.

In the Right angled plane Triangle & BC, let there be given the Legs. to not be dead in Mi

AC 384. 5 To find & Hyper. BC.

Draw a line at pleasure, as AB, and upon the point A, erect the perpendicular AC, and by help of your Scale of equal parts, set of from A to B, 512, and also from A to C, 384 and draw the line BC, for the Hypothemyl, which being Measured by the Scale of equal Parts, will be found to be 640, and by the line of Chords, the Angle at B 36.87, whose complements the angle ACB, 53.13.

By the Tables, the Proportions are,

AB . AC :: Badin . tang. B.

Problem II.

The Angles and one Leg given to find the Hypothemse and the other Leg.

Draw a line at pleasure, as AB, and at Right

The English Academy.

angles to the point A erect the perpendicular AC, and by your Scale of equal parts fet off from A to B 5 12, and upon the point B lay down the angle ABC, 36, 87, and draw the line BE, till it cut the perpendicular AC, then Measure the lines BC and AC, by the Scale of equal parts, so shall the one, to wit; BC, be the Hypothenuse, and AC, the other Leg inquired land.

By the Tables, the Proportions are, or, newig salgnA supildO bna squadtopyH odT

1

6

Draw a line at pleasure, as AB, and upon the point B protract one of the Angles given, suppose the lesser ABC, 36.87. and draw the line BC, and by your Scale of equal parts, number the given Hytothenuse from B to Coac. and from the point C to the line AB, let fall the Perpendicular AC, then is BA one, and CA, the other Leg inquired.

By the Tables, the Proportion is

TO Red . BOW B . AC. LO MIN

no sel ansy la Problem IV.

The Hypothenust and one Leg given, to find the Angles and the other Leg.

Draw a line at pleasure, as AB, and by your Scale of equal parts, number from B to A, the quantity of the given Leg AB, 512, then upon the point A erect the Perpendicular AC, and opening your Compasses to the extent of your Hypothenuse BC 640, set one Foot in B, and move the other, till it touch the Perpendicular AC, and there draw BC, so shall AC be the Leg inquired, and either Angle may be found by the line of Chords.

By the Tables, the Proportions are,

6. BC . Rad. :: AB . Sine C.

7. Rad. BC :: Sine B . AC.

6. Hitherto we have spoken of Right angled plane Triangles, the Problems following concern such as are Oblique.

Problem V.

and from the meint C to the line

The Angles in an Oblique angled plane Triangle and one side given, to find the other sides.

In the Oblique angled plain Triangle BCD,

let there be given the fide CB 632, and the

Angles DCB 11.07. D. 26.37.

Draw the line C B at pleasure, and by your Scale set off from C to B 632, and upon those points protract the given Angles D C B 11.07 CBD. 142.56, and draw the lines C D and B D, till they intersect one another then shall the one side be C D 805, and the other D B 273.

By the Tables, the Proportion is, and .:

0

of

1. Sine BDC . BC :: 3 DCB . DB.

Two Sides with the Made compresented being

Two sides and an Angle opposite to one of them being given, to find the other Angles and the third side, if it be known whether the Angle opposite to the other given side be Acute or Obtuse!

In the Oblique angled plane Triangle BCD, let there be given

The Sides \{ C B 632 \ Ang. D. 26. 37.

Draw the line CD appleasure, and by your Scale set off from Cto D, 865, and upon the point D protract the Angle CDB 26. 37. and draw the line DB, then open your Compasses to the length of the other side CB 632, and setting one foot in C, turn the other about till, it touch the line DB, which will be in two places, in the point B or point nearest to D, if the Angle opposite to the side CB be Obtuse, but in the point E, or point farthest from D if Acute:

76 The English Mabemy.

Acute; according therefore to the Species of that Angle, you must draw either the line CI or CE, and then you may measure the other Angles and the third side, as hath been shewed.

By the Tables, the Proportion is,

- 2. CB . Sine D :: CD . Sine R.
- 3. Sine D . C B :: Sine C . B D.

Problem VII.

Two Sides with the Angle comprehended being given, to find the other Angles, and the third Side.

In the Oblique angled plain Triangle BED, let there be given,

Draw a line at pleasure, as D C 865, and by your Scale set off from C to D, 865, then protract the Angle at C 11.07, and draw the line B C, and by your Scale set off from C to B 632, and draw the line B D, and so have you constituted the Triangle B D C, in which you measure the Angles and the third side, as hath been shewed; but to resolve this Problem by the Tables, it is somewhat more troublesome.

The English Beabemy

77

1. To find the Angles, the Proportion is,

Zeru . 1 X cru :: t Z LL. t 1 X LL.

ZLL+XLL=DBC.

ZLL-IXLL=BDC.

2. To find the third Side.

Sine D . BC :: Sine C . B D.

Problem VIII.

The three sides given to find an Angle.

Let the given fides be DC 865. BC 632.

and D B 273.

Draw a line at pleasure, as DC, and by your Scale set off from C to D 865, then open your Compasses to the extent of either of the other sides, and setting one foot of your Compasses in C, with the other draw an Occult arch, then open your Compasses to the extent of your third side, and setting one foot in D, with the other foot describe another Arch cutting the former in the point B, then will the Lines B C and DB, constitute the Triangle, whole Angles may be measured, as bath been already shewed.

To refolve this Problem by numbers, the Proportions are for the Segments of the Bale.

As

As the base is to the sum of the other sides fo is the difference of those fides to the diffe rence of the Segments of the Base; which be ing fubtracted from the Bafe, half the Remain ner will thew where the Perpendicular must fil Suppose at F, and constitute the two Right a gled Triangles B D F, and F DC, in which we have given the Hypothenuses BD and DC, and the Legs BF and CF, and therefore we may find the Angles of those Triangles, as hat been shewed in the fourth Problem. Can

Problem IX.

To find the Superficial content of Right line The three fides given to find an Amile.

Having shewed the Mensuration of Triangular planes in respect of their fides and Angles, we will now they how the Area or Superficial content of them, and any other plane Fi gures may be found: And because all many-sided Figures may be best Measured by reducing them first into Right angled Triangles, Quadrangles, or Trapezias, we will first shew how the Area or Superficial content of thefe Figures may be readily found; and first of a Right or Oblique angled plane Triangle.

2. To Measure the Right angled plane Triangle BDF, in Fig. 7. Multiply BF by FD, half the Product shall be the content.

3. To Measure the Oblique angled plane Triangle B D C, let fall the Perpendicular DF, then . The English Mendemy.

79

hen Multiply BC by DF, half the Product

hall be the content.

diff

be

100

61

t an

i we

and

may

hath

ned

La cr.

ly-

s,

1

Ċ

4. To find the Area or Superficial content of any Oblique angular Trapezium, convert it into two Oblique angled Triangles, by a Diagonal, as the line B D in the Trapezium ABCD, then turn the Oblique angled Triangles into Right, by letting fall the Perpendiculars AE and CF, then Multiply BD by the fum of AE and CF, half the Product shall be the content. In like manner may any other Irregular Multangle be also measured by turning it into Triangles and Trapeziums, and computing them severally, and adding all their contents together.

Vide A.

Problem 1.

The Diameter of a Circle being given, to find the Circumference.

Vide B.

The Circumference of a Circle whose Diameter is 1, is 3.14159 and therefore,

As 1 is to 3.14159, so is any other Diameter, to the Circumference answering that Diameter.

Problem

Problem Hotaco di sella

A. To find the Area or Severficial content of The Diameter of a Circle being given, to fa the Superficial concent. I bolgra aupillo one

of eathe fine B. Din the Trapez Archimedes hath Demonstrated, that the Area of a Circle is equal to the content of Right angled plane Triangle, whose Legs con prehending the Right angle, are one of the equal to the Semidiameter, and the other is the Circumference of a Circle. And there fore the Area or Superficial content of a Cir de may be found, by Multiplying half the Circumference by half the Diameter, or the whole Diameter by the fourth part of the Circumference, they taking the Diameter of a Circle to be one, and the Circumference 3.14159, the Superficial content of fuch a Circle will be found to be 0.7853975.

And therefore, As 1 is to 78539, fo is the Square of any other Diameter to the Superi-

cial content required.

Problem 111.

The Diameter of a Circle being given ; to find the Side of a Square which may be inscribed with in the same Circle.

The Chord or Subtense of the fourth of a Circle, whose Diameter is 1, is 7071067; therefore, as one, to 7071067, so is the DiameDiameter of any other Gircle, to the Side

required.

D fa

t the

of

COD

er to

Cir

the

the

the

r of

nce 1 a

the

rí.

1

Problem IV.

The Circumference of a Circle being given, to find the Diameter.

by the Diameter to find the Circumference, the proportion by the tenth Problem, is; As I to 3.14159, so the Diameter to the Circumference, and therefore putting the Circumference of a Circle to be 1.

As 3.14'59 . 1 :: 1 . 318308.

And therefore as 1 to 3 18308, to is any other Circumference, to the Diameter fought.

As 1 to 225078, h is the Circumtevence his ven, to the fide in Kimpldor

The Circumference of a Circle being given, to find the Superficial content.

As the Square of the Circumference of a Circle given, is to the Superficial content of that Circle, fo is the Square of the Circumference of any other Circle, to the Superficial content of that other Circle.

And in a Circle whose Diameter is 1 the Circumference is 3. 14159, and the Area 7853975, and supposing an Unite to be the Circumference of a Circle, it is, as the Square of 3.14159. 7853975: 1. 0.079578, and therefore, As 1. 0.079578, so is the Square



The English Academy. 82

Square of any other Circumference, to the Area defired.

Problem VI.

The Groumference of a Circle being given, " find the side of a Square which may be inscribed within the same Circle.

As the Circumference of a Circle whose Die meter is 1, viz. 3.14159, is to 707107, the fide of the inscribed Square of that Circle, is is the Circumference of any other Circle, to the fide inquired; and putting the Circumserence to be Unity, it is, as 3.14159 . 707107 :: 1 . 225078, therefore, As 1 to 225078, fo is the Circumference gi

ven, to the fide inquired.

Problem VII.

The Superficial content of a Circle being given, to find the Diameter.

This is the Converse of the 11. Problem, the Diameter given, to find the Content, for which Square of the Diameter, to the Content: and therefore we must fay; as 7853975 is to 1 fo 1 to 1.27324; and hence, as 1 to 1.27324; fo is the Area, to the Square of the Diameter.

C

Problem VIII.

o the

2 !!

)ı

the fo

m

ife.

07

gi-

The Superficial content of a Circle being given, to find the Circumference.

This is the Converse of the 14. Problem, the Circumference given, to find the Content.

As 1 to 079578, fo Circumference Square,

whe Content: And therefore,
As 079578 . 1 :: 1 . 12.5664, and by confequence,

As I to 12.5664, fo the Area, to the Square of the Circumference. Vide Carbine (vi to shin

Problem IX.

The Axis or Diameter of a Sphere being given, to find the Superficial Content.

As the Square of the Diameter of a Circle, which suppose 1, is to 3.14159 the Area, so is the Square of the Axis given, to the Area that isrequired. other Plates are Parallelour, as

ES. A Profes, is dither a Pentaindur, as

of A Penedechen Prince is that we

comprehended of the Sales, and the

CHAP. ed of the bitter, and the Balga Cut-

elansid.

He valued on 2 of a Ported on

CHAP. I V.

Of Bodies or Solids.

The Superficial ecotons of

A Fter the Description of Lines and Plans, the Doctrin of Bodies is to be considered

2. A Solid or Body, is that which hath Length, Breadth and Thickness, whose bounds or smits are Superficies.

3. A Solid is either Plane or Gibbous.

4. A Plane Solid, is that which is comprehended of Plane Superficies, and is either a Pyrmide or Pyramidate.

5. A Pyramide, is a solid Figure, which is contained by several Planes, set upon one Plane

or Base, and meeting in one point.

6. A Pyramidate, is a folid Figure, composed of Pyramides, and is either a Prisme or a min

Polyhedren.

7. A Prisme, is a Pyramidate or folid Figure, contained by Planes, of which these two which are opposite, are equal, like, and parallel, and all the other Planes are Parallelograms.

8. A Prisme, is either a Pentahedron, an

Hexabedron, or a Polyhedron.

9. A Pentahedron Prisme, is that, which is comprehended of five Sides, and the Base 2 Triangle.

comprehended of fix Sides, and the Base a Quadrangle.

II. An

lel

11. An Hexabedron Prisme, is either a Rarallelipipedon, or a Trapezium. and Equipmeted.

12. A Paratlelipipedon, is that whose sides

or opposite Planes are Parallelograms. to behand

13. A Prifme, called otherwise a Trapezium is that folid, whose opposite Planes, or Sides are neither Parallel nor Equal. neludel Dbag bauor

14. A Parallelipipedon , is either Right an-

gled or Oblique.

nes.

red

gth, 1

ICT:

is ine

[cd

in

c,

P

m

is

2

of or Oblique.

15. A Right angled Parallelipspedon, is that which is comprehended of Right angled Sides, and it is either a Cube or an Oblone.

16. A Cube, is a Right angled Parallelipiper

don of equal Sides.

don of equal Sides.

17. An Oblique angled Parallelipipedon of unequal Sides.

18. An Oblique angled Parallelipipedon pois

that which is comprehended of Oblique Sides.

19. A Polyhedron, is that which is comprehended of more than five Sides, and the Bale a

Multangle.

20. A mixt Polybedron , is that whole Vertex is in the Centre, and the feveral Sides expoled to view, and of this fort, there are only three; the Ollahedron buther Isofohodron and

the Dodecabedron ved stad slody of the Stade of the State Con 212 CAN Offshedron at 15 ca folid Figure . which is contained by eight Equal and Equi-

lateral Triangles.

22. An Icosobedron, is a solid Figure, which is contained by twenty Equal and Equilateral Triangles.

23. A Dodecahedron, is a folid Figure, which

is contained by twelve Pentagons, Equilateral

and Equiangled.

24. A Gibbous folid, is that which is comprehended of Gibbous Superficies, and it is either a Sphere or Various.

25. A Sphere, is a Gibbous body, absolutely

round and Globular.

- 26. A Various Gibbous Body, is that which is comprehended by Various Superficies and Circular Base; and is either a Cone, or a Glinder.
- 27. A Cone, is a Pyramidical Body, whole Bafe is a Circle.
- 28. A Cylinder, is a folid Body of equal thickness, having a Circle for its Base. The solid content of these several Bodies may be measured by the Problems following.

headed of more il I moldor on the Bate a

ic. A Polybedren, is that which is compice-

The Base and Altitude of a Pyramide or Com given, to find the Solid Content. 200 201 11 11 200 200 Weiver belog

Multiply the Altitude by a third part of the Base, or the whole Base by a third part of the Altitude, the Product shall be the Solid Content required.

22. An Icofololon , is a folid From cy which

the Froduct shall be the folid content of

atera

mpre

ticher

utely

ich is

nd i

hole

The

50

k

00-

The Base of a Prisme or Cylinder being given ; tofind the folio Coutent, white two thirds of the Coutents of the two thirds of the two the t

Multiply the Bale of the Prime or Cylinder given, by the Altitude; the Product shall be the folid Contents another bilotedto:

Problem III.

In a Piece or Frustum of a Pyramide, Cone or other irregular Solid, both the Bases being given, to sind the content.

If the Aggregate of both the Bases of the Frustum, and of the mean Proportional between them, be drawn into the Altitude of the Frustum, the third part of the Product shall be equal to the solid Content required.

Problem I V.

The Axis of a Sphere being given, to find the Solid Content.

A Sphere (as Archimedes hath shewed) is equal to two thirds of a Cylinder circumscribing it; now then, such a Cylinder being made, by the Area of a Circle multiplied by the Diameter; and therefore, the Area of a Circle being multiplyed by two thirds of the Diameter, the

Cal

The English Meademy. 28

the Product shall be the solid content of

Sphere.

The Area of a Circle whose Diameter is ! os 7853975 , Which being multiplied by 666666, the two thirds of the Diameter, the Product 523508 is the folid content of fuchs
Sphere; therefore,

As 1 10-523508, fo is the Cube of any An given , to the folid content required. before

Problem III.

land Piece or Frustum of a Pyramide, Cone, or they are what Solid, but the Bafes being given, which be coment.

if the Aggregate of hoth, the Bales of the and of the mean Proportional between them, be drawn into the Altitude of the Frustum, the third part of the Product hall be equal to the folia Content required.

Problem IV.

The Axis of a Spiere being given, to find. the Solid Content.

A Sphere (as Archimedes hath (hewed) is equal to two thirds of a Cylinder circumfaribing it; now then, fuch a Cylinder being made, by the Area of a Circle multiplied by the Da meter; and therefore, the Area of a Circlesheingmultiplyed by two thirds of the Diameter,

e. The number of Mulical Notes

fore divided by Septendries, because to ERENGLISH OF N

in Mulick, by feven diffind Note and therefore the name and

F. F.

ach 201

mi

W

the fina

31

p

The FOURTH PARTS of

6. Thefe thrice Seven Notes are deferred

of the feveral DISUM it the Tamband and

fourth the rach and rose of the f

by their places. A place is cither and therefore in Flever AHD ith their Spaces, is comprehended the whole Scale

y. At the DAND WI & TO ale and Space is placed one of the first seven Letters in the A VSICK is the Art of modulating Notes in Voice of Inframentato bes ibs 2. 1019 doth conline in Singing or being the fielt letter in the warms direct, and 3. In Singing there are five things to be coni fidered : The Wumbers of the Notes 21 There Names to go Their Tunes 144 Their Times. And of Their Adjudessories of sons 4. The mimber of Mulical Notes are three times Seven or twenty one, that is from the lower Note of a Man's Bufe, to the highest of Boy's Treble; we wiselfy recken twenty one

Notes

Notes; though there are some Bases that read below, and some Trebles that arise above this

ordinary Compais.

5. The number of Mulical Notes is there fore divided by Septenaries, because there are in Nature but seven diffinet Sounds expres in Musick, by seven distinct Notes, in the several Cliffs of Cleaves of the Scale; for the eighth and affirents have the sound or Tune, and therefore the name and cliff of the first the 9th and 16th of the seconds the 10th and 17th of the third; the 11th and 18th of the fourth; the 12th and 19th of the fifth; the 13th and 20th, of the Sixth; the 14th and 21th, of the seventh.

6. These thrice Seven Notes are descerned by their places. A place is either Rule or Space, and therefore in eleven Rules with their Spaces,

is comprehended the whole Scale.

7. At the beginning of each Bule and Space is placed one of the first seven Letters in the Alphabets and thefe Letters are thrice repeted one above another , the Lotter G being put upon the full of lowell place of each Septenary being the first letter in the word Greece, and inchefine Septemany, retaineth the Name and Form of the Greek Games, in gemembrance that the Art of Weisk Tas other learned Arts came to us from that feat of the Mules . 20miT 998. Bythefeferen Lierres of the Alphabet, otherwise called seven differ or Cleave sothe Scale is divided into Three feverslo Parts of Musick; The first and lowest is called the Ber Notes: the

Jame,

The English Agademto

reach

e this

here

e are

preft

e fc.

些

and

the

the

Ith,

ned

ce,

CS,

he

ut

the second or middle Part, the Mean grahe third or highest Part, the Treble. As for the Names, which do exceed this angular is resistent in the lane anamer, that the sordinary. Notes are called as they age they are saled as they be sordinary.

Signify, is the Name by which bath of the le Notes is called, who is a a is all a standard by the later is called, who is a a is all a standard by the fact fever Letters in the Alphabets there are but fix feveral names invented to help the Later are period the Tuning of them; is, resultification half and for the feveral Note, because it is by half a Tone above is; as the fourth is about Mai; (whereas the rest are all whole Tone) it is fishy called by the same Name with the fourth and so the next will be an Eight, or Disposer to the fift, and consequently placed in the Samenbers ter or Cliff, and called by the samenament and

And thus they were wont to be placed in the Scale, in which the first Name underly placed upon the same line with the Grebol Grown, hath caused the whole Scale to be called the Game, but modern Musicians in these latter times, have rejected the Names of a rand sei, as sinding the other four to be sufficient for the expressing of the several Sounds, and less burn then former to the Memories of Prishibitoners not the four Columns. In the first you have the Alphabetical Letters or Cliffs, the other three show the Names of the Notes, Ascending and

CAR

Descending, according to their several Name whichelt reer, the Trees. As to

and Keys.

In the fecond Column is fet the Names of the Notes as they be called , when is B diraling B fhery, as having no flat in B mi, and then you Notes are called as they are fet there on the Rules and Spaces Afcending . bacost on 1 ...

In the third Column is B proper, or B named, which hath a B flat in B mi only, which is put at the beginning of the line with the Cliff, and there you have also the Names as they are talled

on Rule and Space. best a rai seman in series situation

In the fourth Column is B fig. or B mollari, having two B flus, the one in B mi, the other in Elami, placed as the other; by observing of which you have a certain Rule for the Names of the Notes in any part. Small and add ve ballo

a general Rule, that what Name any Note hath, the same Name properly hath his Eight above And thut they were wone to be placewolld no

13. Although the whole ordinary Scale of Mufick doth contain three Septenaries of lines and spaces ; yet when any of the parts which it is divided into, shall come to be Prick'd out by it felf in Songs or Leffair, five Lines is only ulual, for one of those Paris, as being sufficient to contain the compals of Notes thereunto be longing And if there be any Notes that extend higheror lower, it is usual to add a Line in that four Column. In the fire and a ner and Maberical Letters on Chiffs, the other their

thew the Names of the Notes, Micendian and

-		MINUTE C	R SCA	LEOFE	AUSICK
TE	EG	Compres.	500	Sol	2
Total	882	Solve ve	10 60	202/	Soc
35	E	a	la	mi	1 fa
3	3	Sol fa	Sol fa	SoC	Sol
3	ğ	fa # m	***	1 fa	16
K	A	la mire	0 6	CE	0 7
3	P	fart	age fa	fa	Sol
No.	8	le solre	Sol	4	1
	5	Sol to VI	1 10	Sof	A Sof
	23	Ja Am	and and	b fa	b fa
3	200	Salver	SOC	Sol	1 da
015	1	1	20014	,	1 6
17.9	E	La ma	Ta Sol	DOM:	6
8	Č	fart	fa	sol 1	Sol
9	B	mt of	La	La	
	â	Famil	Sal	Sof	2100
4	FF	favt	fa	fa	10 10 SOL
100	da	Sol re	So	In L	and briga
	Vec.	A	Brank	SEctions	S BEARING
1000	Officer.	12 , 000000	21 31 10	ITW MOU	

The same of the sa

CIE

14. Though the seven Letters set at the beginning of each Rule and Space, are seed Cleaves, yet sour of them are only usual. The first is called the F sam Cleave or Cisf, to marked this is proper to the Base or lond Part, and is set upon the sourth line, at the beginning of Songs or Lessons. The second is the C sol famt, which is proper to the middle at inner Parts, and is thus marked . The third is the G solve at Cleave or Cliff, which is only proper to the Treble or highest, and is signed thus, on the second line of the Songs at Lessons; and these are called the three signed Cliffs.

The fourth is the B Cliff, which is proper to all Parts, as being of two natures and proper ties; that is to fay, Flat and Sharp, and dotherly force for the Flatting and Sharping of Notes; it is called by two Names, and figned by two Marks, the one is B fa or B flat, and is known on Rule or Space by this mark, (b). The other is called B mi or B jharp, and is known by this mark ...

15. Concerning this fourth Cliff, you are to observe: T. That the Bfa, or B flat domaster both the Name and Property of the Notes before which it is placed; changing mi into fa, and making that Note to which he is joyned, a Semi-tone, or half a Note lower. 2. That the Bmi or B sharp alters the property of the Notes before which he is placed, but not the Name; for he is usually placed either before

their found is railed half a Tone or Sound higher. Lastly, note, that these two B Cliffs are placed not only at the beginning of the times with the other Cliff, but is usually put to several Notes in the middle of any Song or Lesson, for the flatting and sharping of Notes, as the Harmony of the Mulick doth require.

16. Of these four Notes now in use, Mi is the principle or master Note, for that being found, the rest are known by this direction; after Mi, sing fasolla, twice upward, and la solfa, twice downward, and so you come to Mi

again in the fame Cliff both waies.

2. 年 · 2 9 巨 3

find

only

nd

20

not

r to

per.

d

ned and

4).

OWD

art

oth

fe,

h

the

the

fa

17. This Note Mi, hath his being in four several places, but he is but in one of them etatime. Its proper place is in Bmi, as in the second Column of the Gamme; but if a B fa, or B flat, be in its place, then he is in E lami, as in the third Column of the Gamme, which is its second place. But if a B flat be placed there also, then its in Alami re, which is its third place. If a B flat come there also, then it is removed into its sourth place, which is Dlasolre, according to these Examples.

Sol la mi fa fol la fa fol.

II. Ex-

The English Mcademy. Mand they retain their name full, but IL Example. Min Ela. 30 Sol yda fai fol la minfa foliste for the farring and that ping o III. Example. Min Alamire. fa fol la fa fol la IV. Example. Mi in Dlafel. sits former lace. But if a B har to placed there also, then its in Alamber, which is its tand places. If a B flar coine there allo, then removed into its fourth place, which is according to Ecch L. Example, a Alian Bash

CHAP. II.

Of the Tunes of Notes.

He next thing to be confidered in Singing, is the Tunes of Notes, which cannot be declared by recept, but must be learned either by the lively Voice of the Teacher, or by fome Instrument rightly Tuned. Only observe that from mi to fa, and fo from la to fa, is but half a Tone; but between any other two Notes is a whole Tone, as from fa to fot, or fol tola. And in the first guiding of the Voice, it will much help, if at the first Tuning, you found by degrees all thefe Notes, as fol la mi, and at the second Tuning, leave out la the midde Note: this will not only help you to Tune a Third, as from fol to mi, but it will also help you in the raising of Fourths and Fifths, &c.
Of which there are some Examples in the

plain Songs following.



Sol lami fafel la fa fet fot fa la fol fami la fol.

		The Committee of		
and the same of the same of	Service C	cond.		Carriers.
Brond charles	Mark and application of the con-	AND SECURITY OF SE		
	- A - 4	A . A .	A	
81 44-	4-T-0	- 4 T 4	V V V	TA
DATE:	3:03:01	The Party	-	-711
Solmi la fa	falfala	la fa Tolone	a tami scl	lafel.
with taja	mjorjara	in justine		
Direction of	AND THE PARTY OF T	**		Third

Third.



CHAP.

CHAP. III.

Of the Time of Notes.

The Notes in Musick have two names, one for Tune, the other for Time or Proportion. The Names of Notes in reference to their Tunes, are, as hath been said, these four, Sel La Mi Fa; And their Names in Proportion of Time, are Eight; A Large, a Long, a Breve, a Semi-breve, a Minum, a Crotchet, a Quaver,

and a Semi-quaver.

afd

1 1 fa

E

The four first are of Augmentation, or Increase; the four latter are of Diminution or Decrease, and are thus proportioned. The Lage being the first of Augmentation, and longest in Sound; the Semi-breve is the last of Augmentation, as the shortest in Sound, and in Time is called the Master Note, being of one Measure by himself, all the other Notes are reckoned by his value, both in Augmentation and Diminution.

In Augmentation, the Large is eight Semi-

breve is one Time or Note.

In Diminution, the latter four do decrease in this proportion; two Minums make a Semiheve, two Crotchets make a Minum, two lawers make a Crotchet, and two Semi-quavers make a Quaver. As in the Table following may be seen.

Notes

190 The

The English Mcabemy.

Notes of Augmentation.

A Large.

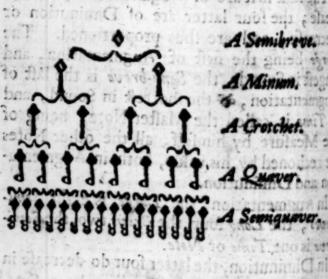
A Large.

A Long.

A Long.

A Breve.

Notes of Diminution.



CHAP

CHAP. IV.

Of the Adjuncts belonging to Musical Notes.

There belong to Notes, thus described by their Number, Names, Tunes, and Time, these seven things. A Tye, a Repeat, a Panse, a Direct, a Close, with single and double Bars, and several Moods.

2. A Tye is a Semi-circle, whose two ends point to the two Notes conjoyned, as when two Minums, or one Minum and a Crotchet are Tyed together; as also, when two or more Notes are to be Sung to one Syllable, or two Notes or more to be plaid with one drawing of the Bow on the Viol or Violin.

3. The middle and principal Note is the Semibreve: And when any Note and his half Note in the same place are conjoyned for one Syllable, the mark of the half Note, and of the Ligature too, is a point set by the Note, as and it is as much, as if with the Note his half Note were express, and conjoyned by Ligature, and prolongeth the sound of that Note it follows, to half as much more; thus a Semibreve, which is of it self but two Minums, having a prick after it, is made three Minums, in one continued found, and so in other Notes.

4 A Repeat is either of the f. me Notes and H 3 Ditty

P.



Ditty together, or of Ditty with other Note, and is marked thus, 2 and is used to signife, that such a part of a Song or Lesson, must be Play'd or Sung over again from that Note one

which it is placed.

Song for the time of some Note, whereof it hath its name. A line descending from a superiour Rule, and not touching the Rule below, is a Semibreve Rest: the like line rising from an inferiour Rule, and not touching the Rule above, is a Minum Rest; the same with a crost to the Right hand, is a Crotobet Rest, and the lest hand, a Quaver Rest: Also a line reching from Rule to Rule, is a Breve Rest, or a Pause of two Semibreves; a line from a Rule to a third Rule, is a Long pause, or of sour Semibreves, and two of them together make a Large pause, or a Rest of Eight Semibreves.

where the Note stands in the beginning of the next line, and is marked thus,

7. A Close, is either Perfect or Imperfect; A Perfect Close is the end of Song, noted thus, or thus, or with two Bars thwart all the Rules, or both wayes. An Imperfect Close, is the end of a Strain, or any place in a Song, where all the Parts do meet and Close before the end, and it is marked with a fingle Bar.



uft be

e in a cof it

fupe

elow.

from

Ruk

Crook

and to

: rer

t, or

Rule Ir Se ke a S. weth the

jus, the ofe, ng, fore

Notes, 8 The usual Moods are two, the Imperfect gnific, of the more, when all goes by two, except he Minims, which goes by three, as two Longs to a Large, two Breves to a Long, two C ON Semibreves to a Breve, three Minums to the Semibreve, with a prick of perfection; this Mood is thus figned, & and is usually called the Triple Time.

The other usual Mood is the Imperfect of the les; when all goes by two, as two Longs to a Large, two Breves to a Long, two Semibreves to a Breve, Oc. this is called the Common Time, because most used, and is marked thus, C.

Thus much concerning Singing; I leave Seting to the larger Treatifes of this subject.

FINIS.

The English Beabents TOT S Theufull diad we two, the words the ture, when all goes by two, except e filment, which goes by there, at two legito a Lege, two forms to a feel, two side of policy of policy of this Moderbustigned, 's and is oftenly called the The other utual It of the Langue of the to or agent and a good to soop flam, by on the Breezes a Lord, two Employers As to the molt of the desired firms, laub court of singing a sure Satand long to the Table of the

海海海海海海海海海海

Line English Tendence.

to alwayer keep the lime

THE ENGLISH

ACADEMY:

The FIFTH PART.

OF ASTRONOMIE.

CHAP. I.

Of the General Subject of Astronomie.

A Stronomy, is an Art, by which we are Taught the Measure and Motion of the heavenly Orbs and Stars that are in them.

2. The Heavenly Orbs are either avasgos, without Stars, as the Primum Mobile, or wasgos, fuch as have Stars in them, as the eight inferiour Orbs.

3. The Stars are either fixed or moveable: The fixed Stars are those which alwayes keep the same distance from one another: but the moveable Stars, otherwise called Planets, are finch

fuch as do not alwayes keep the same di-

stance.

4. All the Stars, as well fixed as moveable, have a double motion; the one occasioned by the Primum Mobile, from East to West, the other natural or proper to themselves, by

which they move from West to East.

Stars, this Art of Astronomy is divided into two Parts; the first sheweth the motion of the Primum Mobile, and how the several Heavenly Orbs are by that carried round the World, from East to West, which is called the Dimma motion of the Stars.

The second part of Astronomy, sheweth the Periodical motion of the Stars, in which the inferiour Orbes, according to their own proper and natural motion, do move from West to

East.

6. For the better understanding of these several motions, the Primum Mobile, or tenth Orb, is usually represented by a Sphere or Globe, with such lines drawn about it as the Stars in their motions are supposed to make, or may help to discover unto us, the quantity of their motions, and shew the time of their Risings and Settings, and such like.

7. This Sphere or Globe, is a round Body, containing one Superficies, in the middle where of there is a Point, from whence all Right

Lines drawn to the Superficies are equal.

8. In the Sphere or Globe, there are ten imaginary Lines or Circles, of which fix are great, and four are small.

9. The o. The great Circles are these which divide the Sphere or Globe into two equal Hemispheres, and such are the Horizon, Aquinoltial, Zodiack, and the two Colures; the two such are called external and mutable, the other internal and immutable.

10. The Lesser Circles, are those which divide the Sphere or Globe, into two unequal Hemispheres, whereof one is more, and the other less than the half of the Sphere or Globe; such are the two Tropicks of Cancer and Capricon, and the Artick and Antartick Circles,

all which are represented in Fig. 9.

11. The Horizon, which is also called the Finitor, is a Circle, which divideth the visible part of the Heavens from the not visible; that is, the lower Hemisphere from the upper, as the line AB; one of whose Poles is in the Point directly over our heads, and is called the Zenith, the other Diametrically opposite, called the Nadir, and noted with the Letters Z. N.

12. The Horizon, is either Sensible or Ra-

tional.

able,

d by

the by

the

into

enly

ıld,

rnal

the

the

per to

efc

th

or he

٠,

ir

13. That is called the Sensible Horizon, which bounds our fight, and seemeth to divide

the Heavens into two equal Hemispheres.

14. And that is called the Rational or Intelligible Horizon, which doth indeed bifect the Heavens; and this is Right, when it paffeth through the Poles of the World; or Oblique, when one of the Poles is somewhat elevated, and the other depressed; or Parallel, when one Pole is in the Vertical Point or Zenith, for then the

(1)

the Horizon is Parallel to the Aquator; it otherwise makes therewith either Right or Oblique Angles.

Right; that is where the Aguator passent through the Zenith and Nadir, 2, 06 lique, when one Pole is somewhat elevated and the other depressed. 3. Parallel, when one of the Poles of the World is in the Zenith's Xerry and

and Set, but in an Oblique Sphere, fome are hid from our fight, and some are always above

the Horizon, and never set.

and proper to every place, and drawn through the Vertical point and the Poles of the World, to which when the Sun comes in his Diurnal motion, in the Day-time he maketh Mid-day, and in the Night-time, he maketh Midnight. There may be as many Meridians as there are Vertical points, but upon the Globe they are usually drawn through every tenth or fifteenth Degree of the Laurer.

on the of

CHAP.

CO

is

so, in religedt or d. ongitud

tal out via CHAP. II. rado as bobivib

U

Of

d

1

le

IĈ

Ó

Of the Internal and Immutable great Circles. ... dil gni vingi? dina dangie

TItherto of the two External and Mutable II Circles, the Horizon and Meridian; I come now to the Internal and Immutable.

2. The first Internal and Immutable Circle is called the Aguator, or Equinostial Circle, on couth which divideth the whole Sphere or Globe into two equal parts between the Poles, to which at the when the Sun cometh, which is twice in the Equinoxes Year, the Daies and Nights are equal in all places but in a Parallel Sphere: this Circle is noted with the letters EF. Jug. 4

3. This Circle is also the measure of Time; for as oft as 15 Degrees of this Circledo alcend above the Horizon, fo many Hours are completed in its going round.

4. The fecond Immutable Circle is called the Zodiack which is a great Oblique broad Cirde, under which the Planets do alwaies move; the Poles of this Circle are distant from the Poles of the World 23 Degrees, 31 Minutes, and 30 Seconds, or 23 . 13 Centelius.

5. This Circle doth differ from other Circles in the Heavens, in that other Circles, to peak properly, have Longitude or Length, but no Breadth, whereas this Circle is allowed to have both extending in bualth about

200 i.e. 10 on each side the grat. In wich . This is done to take in the Orbits of the planets they all moving within that space: See more Art. 7.

6. In respect of Longitude, this Circle is divided as other Circles commonly are into 360 Degrees, but more peculiarly into 12 parts, constituting, as it were, the 12 Partsor Monthsof the Year, or 12 Constellations of Stars, called Signes, each Sign being subdivided into 30 Degrees or Parts. The Names and Characters of these 12 Constellations, or Signs, are as so loweth. Aries V, Taurus S, Gemini M, Concer S, Leo St, Virgo M, Libra M, Scorpion, Sagittarius T, Capricornus V, Aquarius D, Pisces X.

7. The Zodiack, in respect of Latitude, is divided into 16 Degrees, that is, into 8 Degrees North-ward, and 8 Degrees Southward, because all the Planets, except the Sun, do in their Motions vary from the middle Line, sometimes one way, and sometimes another; to the quantity of 8 Degrees; and the middle Line in which the Sun moves, is the Ecliptick Line, because when the Sun and Moon are in Conjunction, the Sun is Eclipsed, but when they

are in Opposition, the Moon is Eclipsed.

8. Of these 12 Signs, 4 are called Cardinals, viz. Aries and Libra, (in which do happen the Vernal and the Autumnal Aquinottials,) Cancer and Capricorn, in which do happen the Sum-

mer and the Winter Solftices.

9. Again these Signs are distinguished into Northern and Southern; the Northern Signs are those which decline from the Æquator to wards the North Pole, as V, S, II, S, S, R; And the Southern Signs are those which decline from

Lyunores

from the Æquator towards the South Pole, as

a, m, 7, 19, m, X.

C B

360

rts,

15 Of

lled

De.

of

6

d,

in ne

inc ()

n cy

is, he

#-O

to.

ns

0-10

שנ

m

10. All other Constellations of fixed Stars are referred to some one or other of the 12 Signs, whether they be the 21 Northern Confellations, called Orfa Minor, Orfa Major. Draco, Cepheus, Arctophylax, Corona Borealis Engonafus, Lyra, Avis, Cassiopeia, Persius, Hemiochus, Serpentarius, Serpens, Sagitta, Aquile, Delphinus, Equisectio, Pegasus, Andromeda, Triangulus. Or whether they be the 19 Southern Constellations, called Cetus, Orion, Erilanus, Lupus, Canis Major, Procyon, Argo, Hyva, Crater, Coruns, Centaurus, Fera, Ara, Corma Austr. Pisces Austra.

11. The two other Great Circles called the Colores, are the two Circles which pass through the Poles of the World, and the four Cardinal

points in the Zodiack T = , 09 %

12. That Circle which paffeth through the Poles of the World, and the two Solftitial points in the Zodiack, which are the beginnings of S and W, and is called the Solftitial Colure.

13. That Circle, which paffeth through the Poles of the World and the two Aguinoftial points, or first entrance into v and a, is called the Equinotial Colors, and in Fig. 9 represent ted by the line DC. north sanition is 2

14. The Leffer Circles of the Sphere are the two Tropicks of 5 and w with the Artick and

Antartick Circles | igo il all es daun es slo 15. The Tropick of 5 is a Circle joyned to the Zodiack in the beginning of S, and described by the Suns Diurnal Motion, whe he is in the Summers Solstitial point, and distant from the Æquinoctial towards to North Pole 23 deg. 31'30" or in Decimal Nobers, 23 deg. 5.25. to which when the Sunce eth, he causeth the longest Day and short Night to all Northern; the shortest Day at longest Night to all Southern Inhabitants; a is noted with 6'S.

to the Zodiack in the beginning of w, and of feribed by the Suns Diurnal Motion, being the Winters Solftitial point, and is different the Æquinoctial towards the South Poly 23 deg. 31' 30", or in Decimal Number, 23 deg. 3.25 parts, to which, when the Scometh, he maketh the longest Day and should Night, to all Southern; the shortest Day and longest Night to all Northern Inhabitants, and is noted with Hyp.

These two Circles are called of the Grant Teomico, a convertendo, because when the su toucheth any of the Circles, he is at his gratest distance from the Æquator, and returned thither again.

17. The Artick Circle, is diftant from the North Pole of the World, as much as the Tropick of S is diftant from the Equinodial,

and is noted with K L.

The Antartick Circle is distant from the South Pole as much as the Tropick of is distant from the Equator, and is noted with O M.

18. By

1

- 31

on Ac

10

06

S.S.E

be

the

fup

mo

the

the

A

The English Mademy.

18. By the Interfection of any three of the greatest Circles of a Sphere is made a Spherical Triangle.

19. A Spherical Triangle, is either Right

ingled or Oblique.

me Right Angle at the leaft

21. An Oblique Angled Spherical Triangle, is

either Acute or Obtule.

ither Acute or Obtule.
22. An Acute Angled Spherical Triangle, hath

all its Angles Acute.

23. An Obtufe Angled Sperical Triangle , hath ill his Angles, either Obtule or mixt, that is, one Angle at the least Obtuse, and the other Acute.

Acute. 24 In Spherical Triangles, there are 28 Vaneties or Cales, 16 in Restangular, and 12 in Oblique Angular, whereof all the Restangular and 10 of the Oblique Angular, may be relolved by one Catholick, and Universal Propolition; for the understanding whereof, some things must be premifed.

1. That in a Right Angled Spherical Triangle, the Hypotenufe and both the Acute Angles are supposed to be noted with their Complements.

2. That the Right Angle is not reckoned amongst the Circular parts, and therefore one of the other five will be always a middle part, and the other four extreams Conjunt or Disjunt.

The Propolition is this:

A Rectangle made of the Sine of the middle part and Radius, is equal to the Rectangle made of the Tangents of the Extreams Conjunct, or of the Cosines of the Extreams Disjunct: Therefore,

When two things are given, and a thirdrequired, you must first find out the middle part, and when the other Terms be Extreams Conjunct or Disjunct; if the things given and inquired he together, the middle is the middle part, but if they be disjoined, that which standeth by it self is the middle part.

Note also, that when a Complement in the Propsition doth chance to concurr with a Complemen in the Circular Parts, you must take the Sine it self, a the Tangent it self, because cs of the ts = \$. and ct of the ct = t.

Analogies to be used in every of the 16 Cases a Right angled Triangle, will from this Proposition be as followeth.

DAI BA	A Que	Analogia.	Fologgi
1 BO	AB	Rad cot . A .: t B	C.JAB.
2 4	BC	cot A . Rad :: 5 A	B. 1 BC
3 A	Bel	BC . AB R	ad . ct A.

4. 11

6

7

The English Mcademy.

312

4	AB	AC	t AB. c s A :: Rad . cot AC.
5	AC		R cot . AC .: t AB .c s A.
6	AC	AB	cot AC Rad: co A. tAB.
noi 7ai	AC	AC	Rad ct C: ct A .ct AC.
			at A. cs AC :: et C.
9	AC A	BC	Rad.s A .: s AC . s BC.
10	BC A	AC	SA. SBC :: Rad . SAC.
11	AC	A.	SAC.SBC Rad.sA.
12	AB A	.	Rad . s A :: cs A B . cs C.
3	AB	d.	GAB. CS C .: Rad .S.A.
4	6	AB	s A . cs C .: Rad . cs AB.
100	6	1	12 10

I 2

116	The English Academy.
15 A	B AC Rad cs AB :: es BC . es AC
16 A	C BC csAB. csAC:: Rad. csBC.
may be if the S	n Oblique angled Spherical Triangles, then hath been faid, 12 Cases, 10 where resolved by the Catholick Proposition Spherical Triangle propounded be fired into two Right, which may be don General Rule.
From an Angle	the end of a side given, being adjacent given, let fall the Perpendicular.

A Type of the several varieties here followeth.

1.	AC CD D	A	Rad . SC D :: s D . s BC.
2.	CD A D		A. D. CD. AC.
3.	AC CD D		corCD.R:: cs D. t B D. cos B D. cs C D:: R. cs B C. R, cs B C:: cs A C. cs A B. B D + A B = A D. 1 Tri. B D - A B = A D. 2 Tri.

The English Mcademy.

117

AC CD C CD. C. BCD. C. BCD.

CD C CCD. C. BCD. R. t.BC.

R. t. BC:: ct AC. cs ACB.

BCD+ACB=ACD. 1.Tri.

BCD-ACB=ACD. 2.Tri.

GA CB-BCD-ACB-ACD. 2. Tri.

| A | C | Gt A. R :: Gt AC . Ct ACB.
| CA | Ct BC. R :: Gt B D C . Ct B C D.
| ACB-BCD = ACD. 1. Tri.
| BCD - ACB = ACD. 2. Tri.

6. D AD ct. AC. R :: cs D AC. t AB.

6. D AD ct. D AC. R AB :: R. t BC.

R. t BC :: ct A DC. s B D.

AB + B D = AD. 1. Tri.

BD - AB = AD. 2. Tri.

A D ACD - ACB = BCD. 1. Tri.
ACD + ACB = BCD. 2. Tri.
AC SACB, GCAB:: R. GBC.
R. GBC :: SBCD. GCDB.

8. C DC ACD - ACB=BCD. 1. Tri.
AC ACD + ACB - BCD. 2. Tri.
ct AC. cs ACB :: R.t BC.
t BC. Rad. :: cs BCD. ct DC

118 The English Academy. ct AC. R :: cs C AD .t AB. AD - AB = BD. 1. Tri. AD + AB = BD. 2. Tri. cs AB.cs AC :: R.cs BC. R. cs BC :: cs B D .cs DC. ct A D. R :: CIC A D. TAE.

AE -AC = CF in t.Th AE+ AC = OF 2.Tr. aCAD.IAE :: R.IDE. DF. R .: SCF . ct DCF.

Cs AC + s C D . Rad. Square. C Zsiz-AC+siz-CD. 12.51 C.

The Twelfth, is but the Converse of the lat, taking the Angles for Sides, and the Sides for Angles; fo shall the Angle found, be the Side inquired.

CHAR

come

ly be the .

the Z ting.

2. Elev:

tick a It, C

of th rifon Poles

3. takes Zodi neath

the A Equ the A

Equ

is to Bame

Arch, is when it is rectoned in the in a Continued Serie . TAHDe he

of the Ascensions and Descensions of the Parts of the Zodiack.

Hitherto we have spoken of the general Principles of Astronomie, from whence the motion of the Primum Mobile is explained a come we now to these affections which properly belong to the motion thereof, and these are the Ascension and Descension of the Parts of the Zodiack, or Astronomical Rising and Setting.

2. Astronomical Rising and Setting, is the Elevation of the parts of the Zodiack or Ecliptick above the Horizon, and Depressed under it, compared to the Ascension and Descension of the parts of the Equator; and this compation is in reference to diverse Elevations of the

Poles.

3. But this Aftronomical Rising and Setting, takes his Denomination from the parts of the Zodiack; which are above the Horizon or beneath it, and are Measured with respect unto the Æquator; for Astronomers do not refer the Equator to the Zodiack, but the Zodiack to the Æquator, for it is the Zodiack, and not the Equator which stands in need of Measuring.

4. And an Arch of the Ecliptick or Zodiack, is to be understood two manner of wayes; namely, Continued or Discrete; A Continued Arch,

Arch, is when it is reckoned in the Equator in a Continued Series, from the beginning of Aries, and fo forward into the confequent Signs.

5. A Discrete Arch, is so called, because it is not reckoned from the first Degree of Arie, but from any other Point; as from the four teenth of Gemini, to the fourteenth of Tauru.

6. Any part of the Zodiack is then faid to Ascend Right, when a greater part of the Æquator rifeth above the Horizon than of the Zodiack. And that is faid to be a greater Arch of the Æquator, which is more than 90 Degrees.

7. Any part of the Zodiack is then faid to Descend Right, when a greater part of the Æquator than of the Zodiack is beneath the

Horizon.

8. Any part of the Zodiack therefore is faid to Ascend Obliquely, when a less part of the Æquator than of the Zodiack doth Ascend; & also, to Descend Obliquely, when less of the Equator than of the Zodiack is below the Ho-

9. Ascension, is either Right or Oblique. 10. Right Ajcension or Descension, is that

which is in a Right Sphere.

11. In a Right Sphere, the four Quadrants of the Zodiack beginning from the Æquinoctial and Solftitial Points, do equally Ascend and Descend, fo that in these whole Quadrants, as many Degrees of the Æquator as of the Zodiack do Ascend; but the intermediate parts of

of th

have

the P

any

as G

Sign

fam

only

Fiqu

tha

rife rife

Ri

CO

0

A

ci

A th

iT

n

T

C

1

of those Quadrants in the Zodiack do vary, and have not equal Ascension and Descension with the parts of the Equator.

12. Those Signs that are equally distant from any of those Points, have also equal Ascension, as Gemini and Cancer. And the Ascension of a Sign is alwaies equal to the Descension of the same.

13. In a Right Sphere therefore, four Signs only do rife Right, all the rest do rife Ob-

liquely.

14. In an Oblique Sphere, the two halves that begin at the two Æquinoctial Points, do rife together, but the parts of those halves do rife Obliquely. And those Signs that rife Rightly, do Descend Obliquely, and the contrary.

Oblique Sphere, taken together, are equal to the Ascension of the same in a Right Sphere, And those Signs that are equally distant from either of the Æquinoctial Points, have equal Ascensions, because they equally Decline from the Æquator.

16. Besides the Astronomical Rising and Seting of the Stars, or their Rising and Setting, in respect of the Horizon and Æquator, there are other affections of the Stars to be considered, namely, those which they have in respect

of the Sun.

17. In respect of the Celestial Circles, that is in respect of the Zodiack, Æquator, and Horizon, there is a fourfold affection of the Stars.





122 The English Academy.

Stars. 1. Longitude. 2. Of Altitude. 3.01

Star,

gethe

Morn

at the

Rifet

Star,

wher

Even

at th

may

a St

net

An

wh

fan

tio

ne

us.

fe

ti

th

d

25

Latitude. 4. Of Declination.

18. The Longitude of a Star is his distance from the first Degree or Point of Aries, accounting from West to East.

Generally or Specially. Generally considered, the Altitude of a Star is the height thereof

above the Circle of the Horizon.

20. Specially considered, the Elevation of the Pole Star above the Horizon, is called the Altitude.

from the Ecliptick, that is from the very middle of the Zodiack towards either Pole, whether North or South.

22. The Declination of a Star, is his Distance from the Æquator, and as he declines from thence either Northward or Southward, so is his Declination nominated either North or South.

23. Thus much of these affections of the Stars, which they have in respect of the Celestial Circles; come we now to those which they have in respect of the Sun; usually called the Poetical Rising and Setting; and this is three-fold. The first of these in Latin, is called Orim Matutinus sive Cosmicus, The Morning or Cosmical Rising. The second, Vespertinus sive Achronicus, The Evening or Achronical; and the last, Heliacus vel Solaris, Heliacal or Solary.

24. The Cosmical or Morning Rising of a Star,

Star, is when it Riseth above the Horizon, together with the Sun. And the Cosmical or Morning Setting of a Star is, when it Setteth at the opposite part of Heaven, when the Sun Riseth.

Star, is when it Riseth on the opposite part, when the Sun Setteth; And the Achronical Evening Setting of a Star, is when it Setteth

at the same time with the Sun.

astar that was hid by the Sun Beams, beginneth to recover it self out, and to appear. And so likewise, the Setting of such a Star, which may be also called the Occultation of the same, is when the Sun by his own proper Motion overtaketh any Star, and by the brightness of his Beams doth make it invisible unto us.

And thus having briefly shewed the chief affections of the Primum Mobile; how the quantity of these affections may be computed, by the Doctrine of Spherical Triangles, shall be

declared in the Problems following.

Problem I.

To find the Suns Greatest Declination and the Poles Elevation.

In Fig. 9. AZ, BN represents the Meridian, EF the Equinoctial, HR the Zodiack, P the North



North Pole; O, the South; AB, the Horizon; Z, the Zenith; N, the Nadir; HC, a Parallel; of the Suns Diurnal Motion at H, or the Suns greatest Declination from the Æquator towards the North Pole; RQ, a Parallel of the Suns greatest Declination from the Æquator towards the South Pole, From whence it is apparent, that from A to H, is the Suns greatest Meridian Altitude, from A to Q, his leaft; if therefore you deduct AQ, the least Meridian Altitude, from AH, the greatest, the Difference will be HQ, the Suns greatest Declination on both fides the Æquator; and because the Angles EDH, and FDR, are equal, therefore the Suns greatest Declination towards the South Pole is equal to his greatest Declination towards the North, and consequently, half the Distance of the Tropicks; that is, EQ, or EH, is the quantity of the Suns greatest Declination; and then if you deduct the Suns greatest Declination, or the Arch H E, from the Suns greatest Meridian Altitude, or the Arch AH, the Difference will be AE, the height of the Æquator above the Horizon, the Complement whereof to a Quadrant, is the Arch AO equal to BP, the height of the Pole.

Example.

titude, taken June the Eleventh 61.99167

The

T

T

rude

of th

Dec

機

T

and

90,

ang

De

fre

the

Pr

The English Academy, 12

The Suns least Meridian Alti- } 14.94167

Their Difference is the Distance 347.05000 of the Tropicks

Half that is the Suns greatest

Declination which Difference is 23.52500

The Elevation of the Aguator,
and the Complement thereof to 38.46667
90, is the Elevation of the Pole - 51.53333 en Late

Problem IL pole sais to snow

The Suns greatest Declination being given, to find his Declination in any point of the Ecliptick.

In Fig. 9. In the Right Angled Spherical Triangle GLD, we have given the Suns greatest Declination GDL, and the Suns Distance from the next Acquinoctial point LD, to find the present Declination GL, for which the Proportion is Rad.sLD::sD.sGL.

Problem III. og ett formen

The Suns greatest Declination and his Distance from the next Equinoctial point given, to find his Right Ascension.

In Fig. 9. In the Right Spherical Triangle GDL, we have given as before the Angle GDL, and the Hypotenuse DL, to find the



the Suns Right Ascension DG; the Proportion is Radet DL:: cs D. t DG.

Problem IV.

The Elepation of the Pole, and Declination of the Sun being given, to find his Amplitude.

In Fig. 9. In the Right Angled Spherical Triangle DTV, we have given the Complement of the Poles Elevation or Angle VDT, and the Suns Declination VT, to find DT, the Suns Amplitude; for which the Proportion is; VDT. Rad. :: SVT. SDT.

In Fig. 5. In the moldord sled Spherical Titangle G L D, we have given the Sans greatelt

The Poles Elevation and Suns Declination being given, to find the Affensional Difference.

In Fig. 9. In the Right Angled Spherical Triangle DVT, we have given the Complement of the Poles Elevation or Angle VDT, and Suns Declination VT, to find the Ascentional Difference DV; the Proportion is, tVDT. Rad.::tVT.sDV.

and the Hypericula E.L., to fine

in Fig. 9. In the Right Selected Triangle Selected Triangle

T

rence

and .

Ir

GD

Ded

fron

Dec

Add

Sub.

ol

ofe

Sub

Add

30

F

bee

the

tot

al triblem VI. soder

The Right Afcension, and Ascensional Difference being given, to find the Oblique Ascension and Declination.

In Fig. 9. G V, represents the Right Afcension; DV, the Ascensional Difference; 6 D, the Oblique Ascension, which is found by Deducting the Ascensional Difference DV, from the Right Afcention GV; for if the Declination be North,

Add The Ascensional Difference to or from the Right Ascen. Obl. Sub. Sub. Sand it will give Desc. Suns Declination, to line

If the Declination be South

P. R. A. C. P. Z. S. of T. P. C. T. P. Z. whole Sub 7 The Afcentional Diff. to 7 CAfcen. or from the right Afcen. Obl. Add Sand it will give of Defce. East and before it at Might, when he will be

To find the time of the Suns Rising and Setting, with the Length of the Day and Night.

First find the Ascentional Difference, as hath been shewed in the Fifth Problem; which, when the Sun is in the Northern Signs, is to be added to the Semi-diurnal Arch of the Right Sphere, which

which is 90, but is to be Subtracted from the fame, if he be in the Southern Signs, and the Sum or Difference will be the Semi-diurnal Arch, which doubled, is the Day Arch, whole Complement to 24, is the Night Arch, which Bisected, is the time of the Suns Rising.

Problem VIII.

The Poles Elevation, and the Suns Declination given, to find the time when he will be due East and West.

In Fig. 10. In the Right Angled Spherical Triangle TPZ, we have given PZ, the Complement of the Poles Elevation, and TP, the Complement of the Suns Declination, to find the Angle TPZ, for which the Proportion is, Rad. tPZ::ctTP.csTPZ. whole Complement to a Quadrant TPD, being converted into time, sheweth how much it is after fix in the Morning, when the Sun will be due East, and before fix at Night, when he will be due West.

Problem I X2 still salt la de T

The Poles Elevation with the Suns Alsitude and Declination given, to find the Suns Aximuth.

In Fig. 10. In the Oblique Angled Sperical

Con Con the the Nor

Nor Oblition and

Red thol fides

half

one.

2011

3712

11

racs the rical Triangle SPZ, we have given SP the Complement of the Suns Declination, PZ the Complement of the Poles Elevation, and SZ the Complement of the Suns Altitude, to find the Angle SZP, the Suns Azimuth from the North; for which by the eleventh Case of Oblique Angled spherical Triangles, the Proportion is; As the Rectangle of the Sines of SZ, and ZP, is to the Square of Radius, so the Rectangle made of Sines of the Differences of those containing sides and half sum of three sides given, to the Square of the sine of the half Angle inquired.

2. This Motion of the fixed State Levens flows for they after their places but little menant Years, but are not immoveable as fosse thought; the quantity of their Apanual Motion, as orang to Tyela Brabeis 50 feconds; and 37 Thirds of a Degree, and others fine him do concine that 50 feconds only is the quantity of their Apanual Motion, that is most agreeable that truth and observation.

This blotton in the Planets is more swift, and AHO leney revolutions out of the Zodinack, yet they do move iometimes in one part of Heaven, iometimes in another, iometimes towards the towards the South Pole, formetimes towards the Moreh, Experimes near one fixed flar, iometimes mean income another allo, where iometime fixed flars do always keep the fame the series of always keep the fame the

finite from one another.

4. The Phaets doingt all move in cone Orb.

CHAP. IV.

Of the Secundary or Periodical Motion of the Stars.

I Aving done with the first part of Astronomy, the Motion of the Primum Mobile, and the Assections of the Stars, occasioned by that Motion; we are now to speak of their own Proper or Periodical Motion, in which, contrary to the Motion of the Primum Mobile,

they are carried from West to East.

2. This Motion of the fixed Stars is very flow; for they after their places but little in many Years, but are not immoveable as some thought; the quantity of their Annual Motion, according to Tycho Brahe is 50 seconds, and 37 Thirds of a Degree, and others since him do conceive that 50 seconds only is the quantity of their Annual Motion, that is most agreeable unto truth and observation.

3. This Motion in the Planets is more swift, and although they never move out of the Zodiack, yet they do move sometimes in one part of Heaven, sometimes in another, sometimes towards the North, sometimes near one sixed star, sometimes near another, and sometimes nearet, sometimes farther from one another also, whereas the fixed stars do always keep the same distance from one another.

4. The Planets do not all move in one Orb,

but

but every Planet hath a feveral Orb, whereas the infinite number of fixed ftars do all move in one only Sphere or Orb.

are these: Salar whole mark is h, finisheth his Re- Cras 7 volution in 29 Years, 174 Dayes, 4 Hours, of moones

2. Jupiter, whose mark is 4, finisheth his (100 4 Revolution in 11 Years, 317 Dayes, 151 moons Hours and har an

3. Mars, whose mark is &, finisheth his Revolution in Year, 321 Dayes, 23 Hours. entended to the consequence and make

4. The Earth or Sun, marked thus 0, fine has sheth his Course in 365 Dayes, y Hours, 49 00 Minutes, 4 feconds, and 21 thirds.

5. The Moon, marked thus C, finisheth her Course in 27 Dayes, 7 Hours, 43 Minutes, and 6 feconds, but returneth not into Conjunction with the Sun, under 29 Dayes, 12 Hours , 44 Minutes, and a feconds. Lyon are de application

e.

6. Venu, marked thus Q, finisheth her Courfe in 224 Dayes, 16 Hours, 40' and 30"

7. Mercury, marked thus & , finisheth his Course in 87 Dayes, 23 Hours, oo' and 15".

6. The Civil Year, though it doth not exactly agree, yet hath it fome proportion with the Motions of the Sun and Moon in every Nation; Romulus the Founder of Rome, appointed the Year at first to confist of 10 Moons, or Months, and called the first March; 2. April, 3. May, 4. June, the rest Quintilis, Sextilis, September, Ottober, November, December, because

distant from Manch.

te

Y

017

ha

Y

ti

R

na

de

bo

to

W

6:

is

C

0

u

S

ti

After whom, Numa Pompiline added two Months more, and called them January and February, and appointed each Month to contain 29 and 30 Days, whereby the Year did confift of 354 Days, in which time the Moon returneth into Conjunction with the Sun, and this is the quantity of the Year in Turky at this Day, only in every third Year, they reckon 355 Days. The Persians and Agyptians Count 12 Moons or Months to their Year, but their Months are proportioned to the time of the Suns continuance in every of the 12 Signs I In their Year therefore, which is solar, there are always 365 Days, that is, 11 Days more than the Lunar Year.

And the Julian Year, which is the Accompt of all Cristendom, doth differ from the other only in this, that by reason of the Suns excess in Motion above 365 Days, which is about 5 Hours, 40 Minutes, it hath a Day Intercalated once in four Years, and by reason of this Intercalation, it is more agreeable with the Motion of the Sun, the former differing from the Numan Year, 11 Days and 6 Hours, the which 11 Days, Julius Cafar distributed amongst the Months, and the Month Quintilis, was by him called July, according to his own name; and Augustus Cafar called the Month Sextilis, by the name of August, and altered the Polition of Days in each Month to that which we now use, in which there are 32 Weeks, and one odd Day, and

and this one Day Supernumerary, maketh an alteration in all the rest, so that the Days of the Week, which used to be assigned by the Letters of the Alphabet, fall not alike in feveral Years; but Sunday this Year, must fall out upon the next Years Monday, and fo forward, till feven Years; and because the fix odd Hours do make a Day in four Years, every fourth Year hath a Day added to its accompt, and fuch a Year doth confift of 366 Days, which doth occasion the Sunday letter still to alter till four times 7, that is, 28 Years be gone about. This Revolution is called the Cycle of the Sun, taking name from o, Sunday, the Letter whereof it doth appoint for every year, as by the Table may be feen.

To find which of 28 the present is, add o to the Year of Our Lord, because this Circle was so far gone about at the time of Christ's birth, divide the whole by 28, what remains, is the present Year; if nothing remain, the Cycle is out, and that Year you must call the last, or 28.

This Intercalation of a Day, placed in February, doth occasion the letter F to be twice repeated in the latter end of that Month, viz. upon the 24 and 25 Days, and in such a Year St. Matthias Day is to be observed upon the 25. of that Month, and the very next Sunday doth change and alter his letter, from which Leaping or Changing, such a Year is called the Leap Year, and the Number of Days K.

1

in each Month is well expressed in these Diftichs.

Thirty Days hath September,
April, June, and November;
February bath Twenty eight alone;
All the reft hath Thirty and one:
— But when of Leap Year cometh the rine;
Then Days hath February Twenty and Nine.

That this Accompt is somewhat too long, is acknowledged and consessed by the most skilful Astronomers, as for the Number of Days in a Year, the Emperour's Mathematicians were in the right, for it is certain, no Year can consist of more than 365 Days, but for the odd Hour, it is as certain that they cannot be sewer than sive, nor so many as six, so that the doubt is up on the Minutes, sixty whereof goeth to the making of an Hour; a small matter one would think, and how great in the recess and consequence we shall see.

fuline Cafar alotted 365 Days, 6 Hours, to his Revolution; but the Sun goeth about in less time, that is, (according to the most er act accompt,) in 365 Days, 5 Hours, 49 Minutes, and a little more; so that the Emperous Year must of necessity breed a difference in so many Minutes every Year, betwize the Year which the Sun it felf describes in the Zodiars, and that which is reckoned upon in the Calender, which though for a Year or two may painsensibly, yet in the space of 134 Years it will

rife to a whole Day, that is, the beginning of the Year in the Galender must be fet one day back.

As for Example :

Let the Year begin in the Vernal Adquinon, or Spring, in the Emperours time, that fell out to be the 24th of March, but now this Year it fell out the 10th of March, 13 Days backward and somewhat more; and so if it be let alone, will go back to the first of March, and first of February, till Easter come to be on Christmas-

day, and so infinitely.

To reform this difference in the accompt. fome of the latter Roman Bishops earnestly endeavoured, and the thing was brought to that perfection it now standeth, (fo much as it is,) by Gregory the Thirteenth , in the Year 1982. his Mathematicians, (whereof Lylins was the chief) advised him thus : That confidering there had been an agitation in the Council of Nice, somewhat concerned in this matter upon the Motion of the Question about the Celebration of Easter; And that the Fathers of that Affembly, after due deliberation with the Aftronomers of that time, had fixed the Vernal Equinox; at the 21th of March, and confide. ring alfo, that fince that time a difference of to whole Days had been past over in the Calender, that is, that the Vernal Equinox or Spring, which began upon the 21th of March, had prevented fo much as to begin in Gregories days, at the 10th of the same, 10 Days difference, or thereabout; they advised, that 10 Days thould be K 4

me 1

rie

here

119

ion,

mna

om

L

iom a be

1116

w t

ito

Neo Eas

lep

the

Mo

tha

Ga

du

fas

do

le

N

fo

N

d

be cut off from the Calender, which was done! and the 10 Days taken out of October; in the Year 1582, as being the Month of that Year in which the Pope was born, fo that when they came to the gib of the Month, they reckoned the 15th, and so the Æquinox was come up to its place again, and happened upon the 21th of March, as at the Council of Nice. But that Lylins should bring back the beginning of the Year to the time of the Nicene Council, and no further is to be marvelled at; he should have brought it back to the Emperours own time, where the miftake was first entred; and instead of 10, cut off 13 Days; however this is the reason why these two Calenders differ the space of 10 Days one from another.

Year as it now stands with us in England, and with the rest of the Christian World, in respect of the Sun; some other particulars there are with us and them, that do depend upon the Motion of the Moon, for the better understanding of them, I will give you a brief ac-

compt of her Revolution.

The Solar Year consisting, as hath been said, of 11 Days more than the Lunar Year; those 11 Days called the Epact, are therefore added to the Lunar Year, to make it equal with the Solar, by the addition of which excess, in every three Years there is gotten a number more than 30, but because the Moon, between Change and Change doth never pass 30 Days, the Epact cannot exceed that number, and the time

me in which the Moon is supposed to make eleveral Motions, and fo return to the place here the first began, is a Circle or Revolution 10 Years, first found out by Meron, an Ather in, who lived about 439 Years before Chrift, is Cycle is therefore called Cyclus Decennomnalis , and from the Autor Annus Metonicus, om what Athenians, the Agyptians we feem have received it, as the Romans from them. Letters of Gold, from whence (if not iom the more precious use of it) it attained be called, as yet still it is, the Numerus Anw, or Golden Number : It is made (briftian, w the Fathers of the Nicene Council, as being together necessary to the finding out of the Neomenea Paschalis, upon which the Feast of Easter and all the rest of the Moveable Feasts lepend: It felf is found by adding anUnite to the Year of our Lord, and Dividing the whole by 19, the Remainder shall be the Cycle of the Moon, or if nothing remain, the Cycle is out, that is, 19.

And the Epact is found by Multiplying the Golden Number by 11, and Dividing the Product by 30, what Remains is the Epact; but to fave this trouble of Calculation, you have it fet down to your hand in the Table before the Calender, the use whereof as of the Golden Number is to find the Change of the Moon, for the Ancient Philosophers supposing the Moon to make a Persect Revolution in 19 Years, did Calculate the several Changings of the Moon that happened in each Month for that

time,

time, and placed the Golden Number for each Year, right against the day of the Month which the Moon changed, that so havin found the Golden Number, they might thereb presently know on what day of the Month the Moon did Change, in any Month of the Year for ever, as also the time, when the Feat Easter was to be observed, according to the Canon made at a General Council held a Nice, in the Year of our Lord, 322, in which it is commanded that Easter should be Celebrated upon the next Sunday following the first Full Moon after the Vernal Æquinox, which then was upon the 21th day of March, and according to this Rule is this Feast observed with us at this day, and not according to the true Motion of the Moon, or precise time of the Vernal Æquinox, which now is about the 10th of March; This use of the Golden Number is well expressed in these Distichs.

In March after the first C,
Look the Prime where e're it be;
The third Sunday after Easter-day shall be,
And if the Prime on the Sunday be,
Then recken that for one of the three.

To find the New Moons by the Epact, do thus, To the Epact for the Year given, add the Number of the Months from March including both Months, and the Days of that Month past, the Sum of these three Numbers shall give you the age of the Moon, if they exceed

not

not

Res

1

the

Ep

vi

tal

th

th

M

n

fo

L

h

tlo

0

i

t

t

not 30, if more than 30, cast away 30, and the Remainder shall be the Age as before.

Example.

I would know the Age of the Moon on the Fifteenth day of August, 1672. the Epact is 11, and the Months from March to August are 6, and 15 the day of the Month, all which put together, do make 32, from whence take 30, and there refts 2, the Age of the Moon

that day.

n

•

And to know the day of the Change, do thus: To the Epact add all the Months from March, and if they joyned rogether, come not to 30, look what they lack of 30, and at so many days of the Month the Moon changeth: If they be above 30, and the Month you desire have 31 days, then Subtract 30; but if 30 days, then Subtract 30; and that rest take from 30, then look what remains, and at so many days of the Month the Moon Changeth, by either of these ways the time of the New Moons may indeed be guest at, but not exactly found: How that may be done, is shewed in the larger Treatises of this Subject; this we deem sufficient for our present purpose.

A Table,

r	Tear		Dom.		r	and the	0	1000
1	of our	0	Lett.	of cu	ryear	7	ola	
"	Lord.			Lord	ofour		len	M
4	1672	I	GF	1700		4 0	3	Epail.
5	1673	2	Ē		Lora	ons in	4	
6	1674	3	D	1702	1.75	here is	3	Sub.
	1675	4	C	1703			. 1	11
20	1676	5	BA	1704	1711	1673	2.	22
	1677	6	G	1705	1712	1674	3	3
	1678	7	F	170 8	1713	1675	4	44
1	1679	8	/En	1707	1714	1676	5	14
2	1680	9	DC				6	- 6
	1681	10	B	1709	1715	1678	7 8	17
4	1682	II	A	1710	17/7	1679	8	28
5	1683	12		1711	1718	1680	9	9
64	1684	13		1711	1717	1681	10	-20
	1685	14	D	1713	1720	1682	11	101
7.7	1686	15	C	777	1721	1683	12	912
	1687	16	B	77	1722	1684	13	23
01	1688	17	AG		1745	1685	14	4
1	1689	18	F	1717	1724	1686	15	14
2	1690	19	CONTRA	1718	1725	1687	16	26
	1691	20	D	1717	1726	1688	17	7 18
4	1692	21	CB	1721	1727	1689	18	1000000
5	1693	22	A	1722	1728	1690	19	29
1	1694	23	G	-	100		_	-
7	1695	24	F	723		- 10 -		
07	1696 1697 1698 1699	25 26	E D	1724			5-1-19	44.9
9	1697	26	C	725	1		1 55 0	
1	1698	27	B	1927	1	7.5	122	
1	1000	128	. 1	, ,		The second second	2-53	- MCN

2 any avy	February.	March.
January.		3 d David.
3 4 Circu	11 e Purifica.	
6 16		11f
d d	19 f 8 g	111
4 4	l og	104
190		194
8 f Epiph 7 g 8 16 a 9 5 b	ia. 166 DEVI	86 30 0
7 8	3519 CANT	-61
8 164 -	1124 25-04	164
9 56	136	56
0 6	- KA 110011	
1 13 d	18	138
2 20081	104	4
13 f	11476	1200
4 108	c Valent.	106 18 4
5 4 7	184	9
16 186	763	18e w 01
	1 2 2 51 41	7f 97 71
17 7 d	158	
19 150 1	441	1546 21
20 4f	1 2211	
21 8 2	1260 (1)	6.11 12
22 124	140	124 2
23 1677	636	1000
24 8 . 2 30	5f	1 2
25 0 d	17 g S. Mat	hi 198 Annum
26 6	1 610	26 64
27 17f 5 E	662	176
28 6g	1460 44	66 141 02
20 1 31	1 98	4 8 62
30 1367	3 .	146%
-	SYCH	1 3 f 1

O.tober.	Navember.	December.
1 164	d All Sain	
2 56	13 6	138 811
3 136	25	24
4 2 4	8	106
5 0 25	104	_ c
6 rof	1 6	184
8 18 4	180	70
	7d	J 2 8
9 76	Tef	158
11 15 0 0 21	155 28	44
12 40 34	48	120
13 f b	1262	1 d
14 128 351	160	13 763
15 143	d	9f
16 6	1 12430	8 4 2 0
17 90	Jan	174
18 d	1787	8 120
19 17 e 20 6 f	64 80	14d 1 0
21 12	146971	3 e S. Tho.
22 144	34071	f 10 11
23 30 00	67	IIg
24 Ch -15	1.6 341	4 10.45
25 11 de 1	198	196 Christm.
26 6 30	2	8 c S. Steven.
27 19 f	860-1	dS. John.
27 19 f 28 3 g Simon & 29 Jude.	16d	5 f
20 166	se Andrew.	30 116
31 50		3.0
and the second		104.40

旅游游游游游游游游游游游

he English Etabelly

THE ENGLISH

ACADEMY:

The SIXTH PART.

OF RHETORICK.

CHAP. I.

Of the Definition and Parts of
RHETORICK.

RETORICK, is the Art of faculty of eloquent and delightful Speaking.

The Parts of Rhetorick are Five; Invention, Disposition, Elecution, Memory, and Promunciation, 12010

In Invention, we are to confider three things !

Arguments we may confirm the Matter Invented. 3. From what Topicks or general Heads those Arguments may be raised.

And

. April.		May.	June.
I		11 6 Philip &	I Sa de Curci
2	114	c acob.	1197
3	6	Igd e	8g
4	19¢	80	164
5	84 00	f	56
	160	116g	large La la
78	5f	54	13 d
	.8 .0.	6	f 2
10	26	136	
		- 24	108
1.2	136 D	10f or	186
		8	76
	18f 201	. sant.	d. ollit
	78	76 81	150 . Zi
16	1800	6	45 01
17	1567	154	807 171
18	46	40	124 81
19	dagi	f	mise di
20	12eda	128	20 450
21	If a	14321	94 11
22	12.63	6 6 1	17f 41 18
24	94	96	6g Jo. Bapta
2/5	17 6 5. Mar	k 19e	4 10 75
26	64	6f	146
27		1 648	36
28	14f 20	144	. d. o .82
29	38	36	11 e Pet. Ap.
20	AS AT	6	f 1 8 09
11	A STATE	114	3.2.3.8

July.	August.	September.
1 19g 2 84 3 b	8 c Lammas	16f 5g
2 84	164	58
3 6	16d 5e f 13g.	4
4 166	f	136
5 54	136.	136 26 d 10e 18f 78 4
6 7 13 f 8 2 g	24	4
7 13 f	6	108
8 28	106	185
9 4	1	78
10 106	100	4
11 6	7f g 15 a 4 b	156
12 184	8	46
12 18d 13 7° 14 f	154	4
14 f	40	126
15 158		12¢
14 f 15 15 g 16 44 17 b	12 d 10 f 9g 17 b	200 8
17	10	94
18 126	J	
19 14	98	176 0
20		C Make
19 1 d 20 e 21 9 f 22 g 23 17 a 24 6 b 25 e Jam.	170	17 c 6d e S. Matt 14 f
22 8	06	14f 38
23 174	14. S. Bar	
24 08	Ap 3f tholo.	116 5 25 2
25 c Jam.	VP 21 1150	
26 134	813	196
27 1 3 1 LAN	1114	1000238 8:
28 f 29 11 g	164 1	f 9 Mich
29 118	. 70 6 3 s	6910
30		- 37
31 100		The state of the s



	April	May.	June.
1		116 Philip&	i sa sali
2	114	acob.	liof
3	6	Igd e	88
4	196	80 8	104
	8dage	f	56
	160	16g	laide 19 19
78	5f	5400	134
2	.8 vos	6	f 9
10	26	13 c 2 d	10g
11			4
	IOdas	10f	186
		8	76
	18f 201	. *8tnt.	doctor
	78	76 81	150
16	1800	6 2 7	4f 01
17	1567	154	830101
18	46	40	124 81
19	dage	fun	10 151 61
20	12004	122	C 14 00
21	If	14351	94
22	12.63	6 .:	- 6 h 21 22
23	9401	96	6g Jo. Bapt
20	17'6 5 Mar		
	6d	6f	146
27	60-1	100	36
28	14f 30	144	4
29	3.5	36	ile Pet. Ap.
20	40.		f 1 2 00
31		114	

July.	8 c Lammas.	September. 16f 58
Ilioe	8 c Lammas.	16f
2 84	164	58
1 19g 2 84 3 b	50	
4 160	f	136
5 54	136.	26
6 6	5¢ f 13g.	4
7 13 f	6	100
8 2g	106	185
9 4		78
0 106	186	
12 184	18e 7f 8 154 4b 6 12d 10 f 9g	136 26 d 10e 18f 78 4 156 46
12 184	. 8	140
3 70	154	12.7.7.14
7° 14 f 15 15 g	1 2	12¢
16 44	- 124	0 0
16 44	11.	34 56
0 -0 -	£32	6
10 14	00	176
20	1	64
27 Of	17 6	e S. Mat
22	60	14f
19 1 d 20 9 f 21 9 f 22 g 23 17 a 24 6 b 25 c Jam.		17 c 6 d e S. Mat 14 f 3 g
24 6b	140 S. Bar	
25 ¢ Jam.	Ap. 3f tholo.	116
26 134	1	196
27 30	114	1000
28 f	6	186
29 119	106	f 9.Mid
30	82	-
31 106		1



-	P. Jan.	
Otober.	Navember.	December
1 164	d All Sain.	f
2 56	13 0	138
3 13 6	2f	24
4 2 0	18	106
5 .0 35	10 4	6
610f	6	184
	18c	70
	7 d	f
9 76	0	158
10 c	156 28	44
11 15 0 51	48	6
12 40	1 4	120
113 7	1262	I d'
14 128 351	10	e
15 143	d	9f
16 6	1 12/30.	8 10
17 00	f	174
10 4.	178	66
19 170	04 00	6
20 6		144
31 12	1460	3 . S. Tho.
22 1447	34 30	f
23 36 45	67 1	Ig or
24 6 6	1140 4.1	4 10.45
25 11de1	100 70 10 1	96 Christm,
26 6 30	4	8 c S. Steven.
27 195	862	dS. John.
28 3 g Simon &		6 e Innocen,
	16d	5 f
20 166	5 . Andrew.	8
31 50		3 4

Anti

東京教教教教教教教教教教教教

ge English Etabeing

THE ENGLISH ACADEMY:

The SIXTH PART.

OF RHETORICK.

CHAP. I.

Of the Definition and Parts of
RHETORICK.

R HETORICK, is the Art or faculty of eloquent and delightful Speaking.

The Parts of Rhetorick are Five; Invention, Disposition, Elecution, Memory, and Promenciation

In Invention, we are to confider three things!

Arguments we may confirm the Matter Invented. 3. From what Topicks or general Heads those Arguments may be raised.

And

And first, the thing or matter which we are to invent, is the scope and purpose of the intended Oration: That is, we must propound some certain Proposition to which we mean to direct our Speech; and of those several Propositions which may be raised from the subject propounded, we should still make choice of that which is most agreeable to the Sentence given.

20

OI

ne

2:

f

Secondly, When we have refolved upon a Proposition, we are to bethink our selves of some Arguments or probable Reasons, by which

that Proposition may be confirmed.

Thirdly, We are to consider the several Topicks or common places from whence these probable Arguments may be invented and raised, and these are of two sorts; Intrinsecal and Extrinsecal; those are called Intrinsecal, which are comprised in the matter which is propounded, and the Topicks or Heads, from whence such Arguments may be invented, are these sollowing.

1. Definition. 2. Division. 3. Notation.
4. Conjugation. 5. Genus. 6. Species. 7. Semilitude. 8. Dissimilitude. 9. Contraries.
10. Opposites. 11 Comparison. 12. Capit.

10. Opposites. 11. Comparison. 12. Causes. 13. Effects. 14. Adjunts. 15. Antecedents.

16. Consequents. All other Topicks, from whence Intrinsecal or Artificial Arguments may be raised, are contained in these, or may be derived from them.

claring what a thing is; The parts whereof,

are

in-

und

to to

Proicct

of

nce

of

ch

al

(e

c

according to Logicians are two; I. The Genne or general name agreeing with the thing defined, and with feveral other things belides. 2. The difference or particular name, which doth only agree with that which is defined;

For Example:

Man is a Living Creature, endued with Reafon. In which the Genus is Living Creature; and this agrees with other Creatures befides Man; The Difference, is endued with Reafon. and this is proper to Man only: But fuch De finitions as thefe, are feldome used by Orators but fuch rather as are called Descriptions, more properly than Definitions; as when a thing is described by its parts, or by its effects, or by the causes by which effects are produced, and fuch like a salt young to a find which

2. Division, is the distribution of the matter propounded into its parts; Thus the Life of Man may be divided into Infancy, Child-hood, O. Contrare

Youth, Middle-age, Old-age.

3. Notation, or Erymologie, is the Interpretation of a Word, shewing as well the Original thereof, as the Signification; As a Senate is for called from the convention of the Seniors or

4. Compagation, is either when one Word hath various endings; as knife, knives; or when feveral Words do come from one Primitive, thus; beautiful and beautifulness; are both derived from beauty.urla an aradiages haragines are

5. A Genut, is that which comprehends fe. veral



veral things under it; which are really diffe.

rent from one another, the Bacoman herangen

things he referred to one common Genus: And thus this Word Art, is a genus, in respect of the seven Liberal Sciences; as Grammar; Rhetorick, &c. and these Sciences, Grammar, Rhetorick, &c. are the Forms and Species which are contained under this Genus or general term,

more things together, which are in themselves divers, but do agree in some particular.

properly than Designate For Examples O mails ylanguing is

different things abut yet they agree in this, that the shadow doth accompany the body, and glory, virtue.

8. Diffimilitude, is the difagrecing of two

or more things in fome particular ib ad valual

o. Contraries, are such things which cannot both at the same time, agree with one and the same thing: Thus no man can be said to be Wife in that thing in which he is a Fool.

201 O. Opposites, are fuch things as can never a-

gree together, as wrath and friendship. 100

thing with another? This is either equal or un-

Equal Comparison is, when two equal things are compared together; as thus, He hath deceived thee, therefore be will deceive me also.

Unequal

wh

As

the

the

fbe

tal

th

So

25

15

Unequal Comparison, is two ways, first, when we argue from the greates to the less a As God spared not the Angels that sinned, how then shall be spare Man?

Secondly, when we argue from the less to the greater, As, He will not let one for go unpunihed; much more will be therefore punish a multi-

tude of sins.

c.

10

d

è

Ĉ

12. Causes, are such things by which any thing is in any fort produced; there are Four sorts of Causes; Efficient, Material, Formal, and Final.

The Efficient cause, is that which maketh a thing: Thus the Sun causeth or maketh the day.

The Material cause, is that of which a thing

ismade, as Money, of Gold and Silver, &c.

The Formal canse, is that by which the thing is what it is, or that by which it is distinguished from other things; Thus a Ship and a Timber-house do differ in the form, or divers disposing of the parts.

The Final cause, is that for which a thing is

made.

13. Effects, are fuch things as are propounded

by their Causes.

14. Adjuncts, are such things which are joyned to the thing or person propounded, but not of necessity; and these are usually seven.

Quis? Quid? Whi? Quibus Auxilis? Cur?

Quomodo ? Quando:

In English thus,

First ask, Who? What? and Where? and Then, What aid? with Why? and How? and When?



Quis? Who? doth signifie the quality of the Person, in which there must be considered his Nature, Sex, Age, Nation, Kindred, and Estate, in respect of his Body, Mind, and Fortune.

Quid? What? importeth an Inquiry after the nature of a thing, as whether it be of importance or not; whether great or small; noble or

ignoble.

Ubi? Where? denotes the place.

Quibus Auxilius? With what aid? notes an inquiry concerning the person that Joyned with him in that action, or other Instruments by which it is effected.

Cur? Why? denotes the final cause, with

what intent, or to what end it was done.

Quomodo? How? shews the manner of doing

it; as namely, with eafe, or how hardly.

Quando? When? notes the time in which it was done, and this head doth many times afford great plenty of matter.

15. Antecedents, are fuch things which go before the thing or matter; as you made him

tremble, therefore he is fensible.

16. Consequents, are such things which do necessary sollow after the thing or matter; as He that is thrust through the heart, must needs die; these are the Intrinsecal or Artificial Topicks, from whence Arguments may be raised on any Theme or matter propounded in this manner:

Every Theme or Proposition doth consist of three parts; a Subjett, a Predicate, and a Copula.

That is called the Subjett, of which we speak;

The

a

15

C

d

П

t

i

j

¥

t

j

1

1

he

is

e,

ne

r-

10

in

Y

1

The Predicate, is that which is spoken of the Subject; and the Copula, is some Verb, which joyns the Subject with the Predicate, as in this Proposition; Claudius laid surres for Milo: Claudius is the Subject, because it is of him that we are to speak. Snares for Milo, is the Predicate; because that is the thing which is faid of Claudius. And the Verb laid, is the Copula, which joyns the Subject with the Predicate. Now then if you will find out Arguments on this Proposition, take the Subject, and go through every Topick: First go to Definition, and ask What it is? What is the nature of it? and How it is diffinguished from other things? Then go to Division, and see into how many parts the Subject may be divided; and so forward from Topick to Topick. And still observe to your self every Argument, which doth by this means arise from the Subject, and apply it to the Predicate; fo shall you eafily fee, whether it doth fully confirm your Proposition; and when you have done with the Subject, take the Predicate, and run through the feveral Topicks with that alfo; but if the mattter require it, and that you judge it more convenient to take the whole Propolition, then the Subject and Predicate apart by themselves, you may in that manner run through all the heads of Invention; but stay not too long upon any one, for if matter offer not it felf in one head, go to another, for every head perhaps may not afford matter, at least not fuch as is apt and fit. But if you would know whether

C. B.

whether your Arguments or matter be drawn from the Subject, or from the Predicate, put it into the form of a Syllogism, and if the major be most certain, you may conclude, that the Argument is drawn from the Predicate; but if the minor be most certain, it is then drawn from the Subject.

When you have found the Arguments which prove the Propolition, you must reduce them into the form of a Syllogism, which doth consist of three Propositions: The first whereof is called the Major, the second the Minor, and

the third the Conclusion or Inference.

For Example :

In the former Proposition, Claudius laid fnares for Milo; the Matter or Subject of the Discourse may be drawn from the Predicate, the snares laid for Milo; which being a treacherous thing, every one may naturally infer, that

it doth deserve punishment.

Now then joyn this Inference with the Predicate of your Proposition; saying, He that layeth snares deserveth punishment, and this is your Major; then take the Subject of your Proposition, and joyn that with the Predicate, and say, Claudius layeth snares, and that is your Minor: From both which, this conclusion must needs follow, Therefore Claudius deserveth punishment.

17. Hitherto we have spoken of Artificial Arguments, Inartificial are either Testimonies

or Examples.

Testimonies are either Divine or Humane,

al

fo

an

t

Divine Testimony, is that which hath God for its Author; fuch are the Oracles of God, and the predictions of his Prophets.

Humane Testimony, is either Common or

Proper.

wn

put

the

hat te;

wn

ich

em

on-

is

nd

id

he

e,

c.

at

at 11 0-

d

ľ

L

s

Common Testimony, is that which depends either upon fome Law, Cuftom, or Opinion and Sayings of Wife Men. wis as abidwagning

Proper Testimony, is that which is peculiar

to fome particular Caufes. Vin tobie tarifici fo

Example, is an Inartificial Argument, by which the Truth of a Thing is confirmed and illuftrated. and alid Addition algod blued nov

the feccasi war is similared, which shall the

the plenting of property provided miles and took

which theuld be in the reginamy. . . at the life

Realth's Auditors, and hold them is the least

it is , whether fine s, or cor core

force fold Aren near in the best milities of

confined the medical putting to the breeden

CHAP.

lymakled; which next

that are left to able to such

providing flow has find out bill

CHAP. II.

Of Disposition.

Disposition, is the orderly placing of those things which are invented: It is two fold. First, Natural, in which things are discoursed in that order in which they were done, or in which according to Nature, they should be done; as if you were to commend a Person, you should begin with his Child-hood, next his Youth, and so to the other degrees of his Age.

The second way is Artificial, which doth either for delight or profit diversly mingle and confound the matter, putting that in the end, which should be in the beginning, and the beginning in the end, that so he may both delight the Auditors, and hold them in suspense; which in an unexpected event doth not a little

please and delight the Hearers.

The Orator then having resolved of his Proposition, must first consider of what nature it is, whether single, or consisting of several parts; and which of the parts should be first

handled, which next.

Secondly, he must chose some sew of the best Arguments he hath invented, and place some solid Argument in the beginning, those that are less forcible in the midst, reserving still the best and most convincing for the conclusion:

fusion; because the Auditor at the first being reedy of knowing, must be prepossessed and onvinced; but in the end he must be strongly onsirmed and forced.

And the most perswasive Arguments are those which proceed from the Definition, Distribution, Genus, Causes, and Effects of the thing discoursed of, for these explain the nature thereof; and less forcible Arguments are such as are collected from some trivial Adjuncts and Conjectures.

Thirdly, he must Logically dispose of these Reasons and Arguments; First, into Syllogisms, and then consider how to enlarge them in an

Oratorical manner.

ole

d.

ur-

or

be

n,

his

his

j.

nd

t-

Ĉ

Fourthly, he must consider into what parts his Oration should be divided, and the parts of an Oration are usually reckoned to be these sive.

1. Exordium. 3. Narration.

2. Proposition. 4. Confirmation.

5. Peroration, or Conclusion.

As for Confutation, it is comprised in Confirmation: But all these parts are not always necessary; for the ingenious Orator, may as he shall see it convenient, sometimes omit the Narration, sometimes the Exordium, sometimes the Peroration or Conclusion, yea, and the Confirmation is many times scarce discernable; as when the things propounded are certain, there is more need of Ornament than Proof, as in Gratu-

Gratulatory Orations, and the like. As for the placing of these parts, their natural Order is that in which we have named them 1. The Exordium. 2. The Proposition. 3. The Narration, if it be not thought fit to omit it. 4. The Confirmation; and Lastly, The Peroration.

An Exordium, is as it were the door of the Oration, in which the Orator doth prepare the minds of the Auditor for that which is to follow: And this is commonly done by one of these three ways; By bespeaking their Favour; by making them Docible; or by begging their Attention. The Favour of the Auditors is bespoke either from the person of the Orator, from the persons of the Auditors, from the persons of the Adversaries, or from the subject matter of the Discourse. The Orator may bespeak the Favour of the Auditors, in respect of himself, if his gesture and deportment be fuitable unto theirs that are his Auditors, and express himself modestly. And in respect of the Auditors, if he shew how well they have deserved of the Common-wealth, of him, and other men. And in respect of the Adversaries, if he modeftly shew wherein they are faulty, and render them to the Auditors inexcufable. And laftly, in respect of the matter in hand, if he fay, that it is some excellent, necessary, and profitable thing.

Secondly, the Orator may be faid to make the Auditors Docible, if he clearly explain the thing of which he is to speak, and how he purposeth to enlarge upon it. Thirdly, Thirdly, the Attention will be quickened, if he faith, that he intends to speak of some great and wonderful thing, and something that sdelightful, necessary, and very much concerns

is Auditors, &c.

m.

he it.

.

he

to

of

r;

ir

is

.

10

b-

ly

æ

e

d

of

ie

d

s,

,

e.

,

e

n

e

1,

The second part of an Oration is the Propotion; And the Proposition is that part of the Oration, in which the Orator doth briefly deiver the sum of the whole Matter of which he intends to speak, and bespeaks the Hearers Attention if need be. Sometimes it doth immediately follow the Exordium; sometimes it follows the Narration; in what place soever it be put, it must be short and clear, and six for Confirmation.

The third part of an Oration is Narration, by which a relation is made of the matter or thing done. And this is either a distinct part of the Oration, and then for the most part is doth immediately follow the Exordium, that the Proposition with the Confirmation, which is to be done in such Orations which assume the explanation of the thing done to prove the

matter in hand:

For Example : 10 2151

If you were to prove that some Valiant Perion had been a Souldier in some Warr; it is necessary that you should delare what the particular Actions were in which he shewed his Valour.

But now in that Narration, which is made distinct part of the Oration; the thing done will be briefly and simply declared without any

exaggre

exaggregation: And in such a Narration as makes way for Confirmation, the things done may be illustrated with great neatness of Language, with Sentences and Figures, and some Discourses may be made concerning the worsthiness of the action, with some amplification

from Similitudes and Comparisons.

The fourth part of an Oration, is Confirmation; and Confirmation is as it were the very
Heart and Soul by which an Oration may be
chiefly faid to Live: Or it is the chief part of
an Oration in which the Arguments are produced, by which we would prove our Proposition,
and refute or answer the contrary opinion of
our Adversary, if need require. What is necessary in this behalf, may be collected from
what hath been already said. Seeing that Consurmation doth consist of the Arguments that
are invented, and the right disposition of them,
both which have been fully enough declared
before.

Confutation, is a part or kind of Confirmation, in which we Answer all Objections; it dotheither precede or follow Confirmation, or may be here or there used in all the parts of the Oration.

And these objections may be either all Answered together, or those first which are first made, and then the latter; or those first which are most material, and the rest may fall of themselves; or the weakest first, that they being avoided, the strongest Arguments may be somewhat weak'ned. And the manner of doing this,

on ag

done

Lan

fome

wor

tion

rma-

be be

t of

odu-

ion ,

lof

ne-

rom

0114

hat

em,

it, or he

n-

rft

ch m ng

e.

ng.

this, is by shewing, that the Adversaries Allegation is either false, impossible, uncertain, or impertinent, and the like.

Peroration, or Conclusion, is the last part of an Oration, in which the Orator should very much endeavour to set an edge in the minds of his Auditors, and incline them to be of his side; and here he should therefore use such Figures, as are most proper to move the Affections: It doth chiefly consist of two parts, Enumeration, and Amplification.

Enumeration is required, that the chief Arguments more largely opened in the former discourse may be clearly repeated in a new form of words.

Amplification, defires that this repetition may be made, by some serious expressions, adorned with Sentences and Figures.

length pur in another, noting

relation, but by a kill of force. Va-

or a noise bold are of a Thoragan a what ever

which the charthough at the able

the board of the CHAP.

CHAP. TII.

or Combagne, is the last part of View Hood wor Of Elecution. egypor co feran edge in the minds of

Lochtion, or the garnishing of Speech, is Can Art by which the Speech is beautified with the elegancy of Words and Sentences.

And this is performed two ways; by the fine manners of Words, called a Trope; or by the

fine frame of Speech, called a Figure.

A Trope is fuch an Elocution or manner of Speech, as doth change the fignification of a word into a different fignification from the natural.

In a Trope two things are to be confidered. 1. The Affections. 2. The Kinds.

The Affections of a Styperbole.

Trope are four, Matalepsis.

Allegoria.

Catachresis, is a harsh and unpleasant change of a Word; as namely, when one Word or Name is put for another, not by any proper relation, but by a kind of force. He threatens me a good turn.

Hyperbole, is a very high relation of a thing, or a more bold excess of a Trope, which doth exceed belief, either by Augmentation or by Diminution. Note that though an Hyperbole doth doth vary from the truth, yet doth it not deceive us through Fiction, or fuch variation.

An Hyperbole is two fold; Auxefis or Meiofis.

An Auxesis is, when for Argumentation fake or Amplification, we interpose a more vehement expression, in his proper place; as when we fay, magnificent for liberal.

A Meiosis, or a Tapinosis, is when for extenuation take, we use a milder or more favourable expression, than the matter requireth; as when we lay a flatterer is a courteous and an affi-

ble perfon.

ne

of

A Metalepsis, is that which containeth many Tropes in one expression; as, when we by an improper Speech, fignifie, first, that which is improper, and by that improper Speech perhaps another, and so forward, till we come to that which is proper, making way for Transition, by interpoling a mean degree; as All the City was moved. Mat. 21. 10. where the City is put for Jerusalem, by a Synechdoche Generis: and Ferusalem for its Inhabitants, by a Metonymy of the Subject.

An Allegory, is the continuation of a Trope, as where many Tropes of the fame kind are byned together; as, Put on the whole Armour

of God. Ephesians 6. 11.

In an Allegory, observe to end with the same kind of Trope with which you begin, or elfe the Confequence will be abused.

The leveral kinds of Tropes as these four:

2. An Irony. 4. A Synechdoche. M cd.

A Metonomy, is a Trope of the Cause to the Effect, of the Subject to the Adjunct: and the contrary, of the Effect to the Cause, or of the Adjunct to the Subject.

In-

in

thi

na

25

is

20

CO

de

fe

W

ti

.

There are four kinds of Causes.

1. The Efficient Cause, by which a thing is.

2. The Material Cause, of which a thing is made.

3. The Formal Cause, by which a thing is what it is.

4. The Final Cause, for which a thing is; of which the two first only belong to our present purpose.

A Metonymy of the Cause, is of the Efficient,

or of the Matter.

A Metonymy of the Efficient cause, is when the Author or Inventor of any thing is put for those things which he hath invented; as Virgil, for the Poem or Works composed by Virgil

A Metonymy of the Material Cause, is when the name of the Matter is put for the Effect;

as Brass, for Brass Money.

A Metonymy of the Effect, is when the Efficient Cause is lignified by the Effect; as, Pale Death, which makesh Pale.

A Metonymy of the Subject, is when the proper name of any Subject is made to fignific the Adjunct; as, the Cup, for the Drink in the Cup

A Metonymy of the Adjunct; is when the Adjunct is put for the Subject; as Gen. 31.53. Jacob Sware by the fear of his Father Isaac, i.e. by God, whom Isaac feared.

An

An Ireny, is a Trope from one opposite to mother, or in which we speak by contraries.

Opposites; are either unlike dr contraty; all things of different natures are faid to be unlike as a Many a Stone; and all things of contrary natures are faid to be contrary to one another; Goffelio er ey eventure, me. andrab bas thista

An Irony of a thing unlike, is when any thing is spoken of one person, and understood of the record kind of Floration by Leastons

the he

he

ng

ng

15

ŀ

An Irony from the contrary, is when one contrary is fignified by another; as O thou haft done very well; meaning that he had done very ill.

Paralepsis, is a kind of Irony, by which we feem to pass by, or take no notice of such things which yet we strictly observe and remember.

Apophasis; is a kind of Irony, by which we deny to fay or do what yet we ipeak with greatest earnestness, and do with all our might.

A Metaphor, is a Trope, by which we expressour selves by a word, which is of the like fignification with that we mean; as, the King is the head of the Common-wealth.

Synecdoche, is a Trope, by which a part is put for the whole, or the whole for a part.

A Part, is either a Member or Species.

A Synecdoche of a Member, when by a Member the whole is lignified; as, the Roof, for the Honfe.

A Synecdoche of the Species, is when the Species is put for the Genus; as, Crafus, for a

Rich man.

The whole is either an Integer or Gemus.

M 2

A Synecdoche of an Imeger, is when an Integer is put for a Member; as, His Army was So great, that it drank the Rivers dry; meaning a great part of the Water in the River.

A Synecdoche of the Genus is, when the general is put for the special; as, Preach the Gospel to every Creature, meaning Mankind on-

ly, and not to every Creature. I To want and

Hitherto of Tropes, the first kind of elocution, the fecond kind of Elocution by Figure. An Frany from the contrary, a concord

concary is fignified by another; as the bade

dence y well; me give that he had a

The defin, is a land of from , e.g. which we fecin to pale by, or t kern notice of abel this which yet we firstly observe and selections Spokafu; isakindoi Iran , by which we tel carrelines . and do with the tel A Mer spher, is a Trope , by x prospective by a word, words in the like .AHOON THE Comment of the CHAP. n ymil a

Strates is a Trope, by while that is

ri

te

ti

fv

ir

t

a lear, is either a Member of Spelle A S needsche of a Member, when by a Member the whole is figuified these th

. Put he the whole, or the whole has bett

A Symeodoche of the Species, is Speak is pure for the Grain; as, C

Increhole is cirier an lare to

Feet, but not of VIV . A H Junber but of as many of VIV. A H Junber

The Figure of a Word in refped of the repetition to sail Of a Figure. hornel nothing

Figure, is a kind of Elocation, by which The form of a Speech is changed from its right and plain use.

A Figure, is either of a Word, or of a Sentence. In as to mentaling

in a

he he

n-

1-

A Figure of a Word, is that by which an Oration or Speech is composed of Words aptly and fweetly fuitable to one another, and this confifts in the Dimension or Repetition of Sounds or Intermiffor is repeated indiversely before show

A Figure, in the Dimension of Sounds, is the fweet number of Sounds in a Sentence.

Number , is either Poetical or Oratorical,

A Poetical Number, is that which is confined to a perpetual observation of certain Spaces.

A Number Poetical, is either Rhyme or Meter.

Rhyme is a Poetical Number, containing a certain number of Feet, without any regard to the quantity of the Syllables, whether long or

Dare to be true; nothing can need a lye : A fault that needs it most, grows two thereby

are the Charlet rime; by are Love ! guided. A Meter, is a Poetical Number, confifting of certain Feet, of which the last Foot hath the last Syllable indifferent or common; that is, chrese? fo am I: Are they live! month ao guod Oratorical Are M 3

Oratorical Number doth indeed confift of Feet, but not of any certain number of Feet, but of as many or as few as the Orator pleafeth.

1

The Figure of a Word in respect of the repetition thereof, is either of like or unlike

Sounds.

A Figure of a Word in the repetition of the like Sound, is either with, or without intermission.

Repetition of the like Sound without intermission, is either an Epizeuxis, or an Anadiplosis.

An Epizeuxis, is when a like Sound is repeated in the same Sentence without intermission; as, a Sword, a Sword is sharpened.

An Anadiplosis, is when a like Sound without Intermission is repeated in divers Sentences, i.e. when it ends one and begins another; as,

If then, why I take not my leave, she ask;
Ask her again, why she did not unmask?

Repetition of like found with intermission in the same place, is either an Anaphora or Epifrophe.

An Anaphora, is when a like found is repeated in the beginning of Sentences; as,

By art of Sails and Oars, Seas are divided: By art the Chariot runs; by art Love's guided.

An Epistrophe, is when a like found is repeated, in the close of Sentences; as, Are they Hebrews? So am I: Are they Israelites? So am Is

Are they of the feed of Abraham? fo am I'm Repetition of like found with intermission in divers parts of places, is either an Epanalepfit, or an Epunados, and to mand to danit

An Epanalepsi, is when a like Sound is repeated in the beginning and ending of the fame Sentence; as, Inforrow was I born, and I must dye

in forrow.

ct,

h.

re-

ke

he

T.

r-

û.

2.

;

t

An Epanados, is when the like Sound is in the beginning and ending of divers Sentences, an Anadiplosis coming between ; as, Parthenia defired above all things to have Argalus; Argalus feared nothing but to mifs Parthenias

A Figure of a Word made by the repetition of Sounds somewhat unlike, is either Paronomasia,

or Polyproton.

Paronomasia, is when a Word being changed in a Letter or Syllable, it is also changed in Sense and Signification; as, Though you advisome to repent , I have not Grace to follow your advice.

A Polyproton, is when Words of the fame Original are reiterated, but with fome variation;

as, Deceiving, and being Deceived.

A Figure in reference to a Sentence, is a Figure which affecteth the whole Sentence with fome motion of the Mind, either in absolute reasoning, or in reasoning Dialogue wife.

Logismus, or absolute Reasoning, is when a Sentence is composed without any talking with other fuppoled, this is either Ecohonefis, a recalling of ones felf, Apostrophe, or Presopopeia.

Ecohonesis, is a Figure in reasoning, by way of Exclamation, by an Adverb expressed, or bnA.

under-

understood; as, O wretched man that I am!
Recalling of ones self, is when something is called back; and it is as it were a Diminution of the over-hastiness or heat of Speech; and this is

either Epanorthofis, or Aposiopesis.

An Eparnorthosis, is when something preceeding is called back, by correcting it; as, I had one only Young Manto my Son; ah! what have I faid! I had! Yea I had! It is now uncertain whether I have or not.

An Aposiopesis, is when the close of a Sentence begun is stopped, by keeping in a part, which yet is understood; as, You Rogue, if I Live!

An Apostrophe, is when a Speech is directed to another, than was by the Speech it felf at

first intended; as, God knows I lye not!

A Prosopopzia, is when in our Oration, we suppose another person to be speaking; as, Josh. 24. 27. Behold this shall be a witness unto m; for it bath heard all the Words of the Lord, which he bath spoken unto us.

A Figure, in reasoning Dialogue-wise, is when a Sentence is composed in form of a Conference; this consisteth in Question and Answer, in Consenting or differenting Dialogism.

A Figure of confenting Dialogism, is when ones Answer doth admit of the Objection expressed or understood; yet so, as that from thence the inconsequence of the Objection may be shewed if need be.

Diffenting Dialogifm, is when ones Answer doth impugn or cross the Objection.

under-

And

The English Mcademy.

169

And thus much concerning Elocution, as for Memory and Pronunciation, which are the other two parts of Rhetorick, I purposely omit them, as being natural Endowments, which may be better improved by constant practice, than by any Precepts which can be given.

FINIS.

Ele Englich Mendemp.

edr. And thus much concerning Elbert on, as for Admory and Promucianous which are the other two parts of Rivernels, 1 purpolaly omit them, es being natural Endownicars, which rank be better ingre of Lyconft in praftice, than by any Precepts which can be given.

推搬鐵鐵鐵鐵鐵鐵鐵鐵鐵鐵鐵鐵

THE ENGLISH

ACADEMY:

The SEVENTH PART.

Of the ART of LOGICK.

CHAP. I.

Of Simple Themes.

Mind in the knowledge of Things.

2. The Parts of Logick are two
Thematical and Organical.

3. The Thematical part is that, which Treateth of Themes, with their various affections, and second Notions, as of the matter of which Logical Instruments are composed.

of these Instruments, and their Composition.

5. A Theme, is any thing propounded to the understanding, that it may be known.

6. A

6. A Theme, is either Simple or Compound.

7. A Simple Theme, is one Voice, Signifying

one thing; as, a Man, a Herfe.

8. A Compound Theme, is a Theme made of feveral Simple Themes rightly joyned together; fignifying many or feveral things; fuch are all Orations.

9. A Simple Theme or Voice , is

1. Concrete, which expresseth a thing Concretely or Jointly; as, Learned.

2. Abstract, which noteth something Ab-

Aracted from all others; as, Learning.

10. An Abstract Voice, or Simple Theme, is

Singular or Universal.

- 11. A Singular Theme, is that which in its own nature can be spoken of no more than one, and is called an Individual.
 - 12. Individuals are of two forts.
- 1. Such as are Certain and Determinate; as, this man, Paul, Alexander, the Apostle of the Gentiles, &c.

2. Such as are uncertain and indeterminate,

as some man.

- 13. An Universal Simple Theme, otherwise called a Predicable, is that which may be spoken of many; as, a Body; and this is either of the First or Second Intention.
- 14. A Simple Theme of the first Intention, is that which expresseth the thing it felf; as, Gold, Stone, &c. fo called, because they are thenames by which the things themselves are first made A Theme, is any thing propounded inwork
 - 15. A Simple Theme of the feared Intention, is that

that which doth not express the things it self but certain affections agreeing to the thing, and such are all Words of Art; as, a Noun, a Metaphor, &c.

16. An Universal Simple Theme, may be ipo-

: TOLONE:

ken of many, two ways.

1. In Quid? or by declaring what a thing is; and thus it is spoken of such as do differ in the Species, and is called Genue; as, a living Greature, colour, &c. or else of such as do differ in number only, and is called Species; as, a Man.

2. In Quale, or by declaring what a kind of thing it is, of which it is spoken; and that Essentially or Accidentally, Essentially, and then it is called Difference, the which is,

1. Divisive, by which a Genus is divided into its several Species, as by rational and irrational a Living Creature is divided into a Man or a Beast.

2. Constitution, which doth Effentially con-

Ritute fome Species , and this is ; 5 10

remote Species, but not the next, for the next is the Genus; thus Sensibility in respect of Man, is a Generical difference, constituting sust a living Creature, and then a Man. And this is always spoken of many differing in Species, or Number.

2. Specifical, which doth constitute the near rest Species; as, Rationalibility doth constitute Man.

2. Accidentally, and that either of necessity, and then it is called a proper Accident, which

is convertible with its Species, perpetually inherent in every of them, and in no other, as the visible faculty in a Man.

Or not of necessity, and then it is called a common or simple Accident, not convertible

with its Species; as white.

17. All Simple Themes, may be reduced to ten ranks or orders, called Predicaments, of which some are more principal, some less.

18. The more principal Predicaments are the first fix, the less principal, are the other

four.

of two forts, the one of Substance, and the other of Accidents.

20. Of Substance, there is only one, and it is called by that name Substance, which is a thing substituting of it felf, and it is either first or second.

france, or a Substance that cannot be predi-

cated of its Subject; as, Alexander.

tance, or a Substance which may be predicated of its Subject; as, a Man, a Herfa. The first Substance is chiefly and properly a Substance, and among the second Substances, every one is by so much more a Substance, by how much it is nearer to the surface.

23. The Predicamental Ranks or Orders of

Accidents, are of two forts.

1. Absolute, as the Predicaments of Quantity, Quality, Action, and Possions

2. Re-

b

ta

ra

lil

for

2. Relative, as the Predicament of Relation.

24. Quantity, is an absolute accident, by which a thing is said to be great in bulk or number.

25. Quality, is an absolute Accident, by which it is Simply and Determinately declared what kind of thing, that subject is, of which it is the Quality.

26. Action, is an Accident, by which a Sub-

ject is faid to be doing.

27. Passion, is an Accident, by which the Subject is called Patient; or it is the reception of Action.

28. Relation, is a respective Accident, by which one thing is predicated of another, or may by some way be referred unto another.

29. The less principal Predicaments are these four; When, Where, Situation, and Habit.

30. The Predicament When, is an Accident, by which finite things are faid to be in time, past, present, or to come.

31. The Predicament Where, is an Accident, by which things finite, are faid to be in fome

place.

32. The Predicament of Situation, is a certain Ordination, or placing of parts in Generation.

33. The Predicament of Habit, is an Accident, by which some Garment or something like a Garment, is put about, hanged upon, or some way or other joyned to a Body.

CHAP.

which a thing is that to be great in bulk or mun.

Relative, as the Predicament of Relation.

of Compounded Themes. which it is Simply and Determinate!

TItherto of Simple Themes: Compounded Themes, or fuch as are made of feveral Simple Themes are next to be confidered; otherwife called Enunciations, or Propositions.

2. An Enunciation, or Proposition, is an Indicative, Congruent and perfect Oration, fignifying true or false without any Ambiguity.

3. The parts of a Proposition are two, the

parts Signing or Signed. org at point one daily

4. The parts Signing are Simple Terms, whose parts can fignific nothing, being feparated from the whole, or no fuch thing as they did fignific being joyned all together mealiber and T. or

5. These Simple Terms are of two forts , Ca-

tegorematical, or Syncategorematical.

6. Categorematical, or Significative Terms, or fuch Simple Terms, as do by themselves fignifie fomething perfectly; and these are either Nouns or Verbs. 12 lo moungailes

7. A Noun, is a Simple Term or Word, which doth fignifie fome certain thing without de-

ftinction of time; as, a man, a horfel

8. A Verb, is a Simple Term, which doth fignific fomething, with some destination of time past, present, or to come; as, be runnerbay variation

9. Syncategorematical, or Confignificative Terms, are Simple Terms, which of themselves

do

do not fignifie any certain thing, or constitute a Proposition, but being joyned with other Words, are fignificative, to express the manner of such a thing; and such are all Words which serve to express the quantity of a proposition; as, all, none, some, &c. with all Adverbs, Conjunctions, Prepositions, and Interjections.

10. The parts figned are three; the Subject,

the Predicate, and the Copula.

11. The Subject is all that which precedes the Copula in the Proposition.

12. The Predicate, is all that which is spo-

ken of the Subject.

ded

ral

er-

di-

fy:

he

(e

m

ic

t-

ninote

13. The Copula, is the principal Verb, joyning the Predicate to the Subject, and in every Proposition is some person of this Verb Substantive, as in this Proposition, A Man is a living Creature; a Man is the Subject; a living Creature is the Predicate; and the Verb is the Copula; sometimes the Copula is some Person of a Verb Adjective; as in this Proposition, Socrates lived at Athens.

Precede, and the Predicate follow the Copula, in order of the Parts or Terms, but in Sense and Construction; and also, that in some Propositions, the three Terms are not alwayes exprest, but implyed; as, I walk, for I am walking.

14. Propositions are distinguished three ways, according to Substance, Quantity, and Quality.

15. A Proposition, in respect of the Substance

or parts of which it doth confift, is either Cate-

gorical or Hypothetial.

16. A Categorical Proposition, is that which doth consist of one Subject, one Predicate, and one Copula; as, a man is a Living Creature, and this is either Pure or Modal.

17. A Pure Categorical Proposition, is when the Predicate is purely affirmed or denyed of the Subject, without expressing the manner of

affirming or denying.

18. A Modal Categorical Proposition, is when besides the Subject, Predicate, and Copula, we add some modification, to shew how the Predicate is in the Subject; as, it is necessary; it is contingent; it is possible; it is impossible that a man should be without reason.

19. An Hypothetial Proposition, is that which doth consist of two Categorical Propositions, joyned together by some Conjunction, as, if a Man be a Living Creature, then a. Man is a

Body.

20. A Proposition, in respect of Quality, is distinguished two ways; first, according to the Quality of the Sign, and so it is Assirmative or Negative: Secondly, according to the Quantity of the thing; and so it is either True or False.

21. A Proposition, in respect of Quantity, is,

universal, particular, indefinite, or singular.

22. An Universal Proposition, is that which hath a note of Universality added to a common or universal Subject; as, every Man is a Living Creature.

23. A Particular Proposition, is that in which a note

a note of particularity is added to an universal Subject; as Jome Man is a Living Creature.

24. An Indefinite Proposition, is that, in which no note, whether Univertal or Particular is put before the universal Subject; as, a Man is a

Living Creature.

C-

h

d

d

n

S

25. A Singular Proposition, is that in which the Subject is fingular, whether it be a proper Name; as, Secrates is a Philosopher; or whether it be a common Name, with a note of fingularity fet before it ; as, this Man is Learned.

26. Pure Categorical Propositions, as they have reference to one another, have three atfections; Opposition, Aguipollency, and Con-

version.

27. Opposition, is the repugnancy of two Categorical Propositions, either in quantity alone, or in quality alone, or elfe in quantity and quality both, in which there is the same Subject, the fame Predicate, and the fame Copula; as, every Man is just, no Man is just

28. The Categorical Propositions, may be said to be Opposite four wayes; Contrarily, Subcon-

trarily, Subalternately, and Contradictorily.

29. Two Propositions, that are contrarily, and Subcommunity opposite, are opposite only in qualiry; and tuch as are subalternately opposite, are opposite only in quantity; and fuch as are contradictority opposite, are opposite both in quantity and quality.

30. Opposition, by way of Contrariety, is the repugnancy of two Universal Propositions in quality; as, every Man doth run, no man doth run;



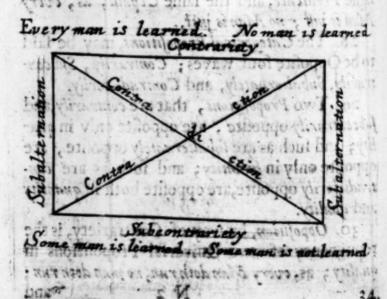
and these in a contingent matter, may be both False, but cannot be both together True.

fome man doth run, fome man doth not run; and these in a contingent matter may be both True, but cannot be both together False.

of two Affirmative, or two Negative Propositions in their quantity; as, every man doth run,

Some man dothrun.

ey of two Propositions, both in quality and in quantity; so that if one of them be Affirmative, the other shall be Negative; if one be Universal, the other shall be Particular; as, Every Man is Learned, some Man is not Learned: All which may be easily apprehended by the following Scheme:



oth

an-

25,

and

ic,

CY

fi-

n,

n.

in

2-

c

Ĉ

34 Equipollency, is the equivalency of two Propolitions, in fense and fignification, though they differ in Words, by virtue of this Word of Negation (not) being fet before the Sign and Subject, after the Sign and Subject, or both before and after, in which there is the fame Subject , and the lame Predicate; as , Some man is Learned; not every man is Learned: The feveral varieties whereof are fully expressed in thefe Diftichs. To all harraynos ed yam anoisit

If after Sign and Subject, this (not) be, Contraries then, make Aquipollencie. Only before make contradictories of But fore and aft', are subalternate guife.

35. Conversion, is an apt mutation of the whole Subject, into the place of the whole Predicate, and of the whole Predicate, into the place of the whole Subject , keeping the fame Quality, but fometimes changing the Quantity; as, Every Man is a Living Creature; some Living Creature is a Man.

36. This Conversion is three fold;

1. Simple, in which the Predicate is changed into the place of the whole Subject, and the Contrary, keeping the same both Quality and Quantity; as, No Man is a Stone, therefore no Stone is a Man.

By Accident, in which the whole Predicate is changed into the place of the whole Subject, and the Contrary, keeping the fame Quality, but changing of the Quantity; as, Every Man 15

is a Living Creature, therefore some Living Creature is a Man.

Subject is changed into the place of the whole Predicate; and the contrary, keeping both the fame Quality and Quantity, but changing the terms from Finite to Infinite; as, Every Man is a Living Creature, therefore every thing that is a Living Creature, is not a Man: What Propositions may be converted this or that way, these Verses do express.

EE, I I, Conversion Simple make.

AI, EO, of Accident partake.

AA, OO, for Contraposits sake.

And what these Letters A, E, I, O, do fignise these Distichs do declare:

A, affirmes, E, denies both universal are,
I, affirms, O, denies, but both particular.

1. Sample, in which the Predicate is changed

Quantity as, No Man is a Stone, there ore no

end the Contrary, localing the force Quality, but thanging of the Quantity; as, Every Men

place of conviole subjetts, and the

36. This Converfing is three fold;

AAHO decident, in which the whole Predicate is chinged into the place of the whole Subject,

Granwe is a pleas.

CHAP. III.

Of Definition and Division.

Having done with the first part of Logick, namely, that which treateth of Themes.

nical, or that which treateth of Logical Inftruments, and their Composition.

2. Logical Instruments are four; Definition,

Division, Argumentation, and Method.

3. Definition, is the explication of the thing which is defined; and this is either Nominal, or Real.

4. A Nominal Definition, is that which sheweth the Signification of the Name; whether it be by giving the Etymology thereof, or by expressing it by some other Synonymous word more generally known.

5. A Real Definition, is that which sheweth what the thing is; and this is either Perfect or

Imperfect.

reas

hole

hole

the

1 15

15 4

PO.

cle

6. A Real and a Perfect Definition, is that which doth explain the thing by Essential Attributes.

7. A Real, but Imperfect Definition, otherwise called a Description, is that which explains the Nature of a thing, by certain Accidental Attributes.

8. Division, is the Deduction of some thing that is large, into a straighter and narrower N 4



comprehension; and this is either of some ambiguous word, into its several significations, and then it is called Distinction, or of the whole into its parts.

9. The whole is either Simple, or Aggregate; Division of the whole, simply and properly so

called, is threefold.

1. Universal into its subjective parts, or of the General into the Specials; as, to divide Animal into Man and Beast.

2. Essential, which resolves the whole into essential parts, and this either of a Species into its Genus and Difference, or of some special nature into its matter and form; as, A Man into Soul and Body.

3. Integral, which resolve the whole into Integral Parts, and this is the Division of some individual, either into its sensible or material

parts.

4. Division of the aggregated whole into

its Parts, and by Accident is five fold.

1. When the Subject may be Divided by its Accidents; as, Men are Learned or Unlearned.

2. When an Accident may be Divided by its Subjects; as, Feavers are in the Spirits or in

the Humours, or in the Solid parts.

Accidents; as, Good is either profitable, honest, or pleasant.

4. When things may be Divided by their Objects; as, Sight by Colours, Hearing by Saund.

5. When

Ef

be

F

The English Madenty.

5. When Causes may be Divided by their Effects; and the Contrary; as, Heavenly heat is from the Sun, and Elementary from Fire.

d e

0

Of Arriencentation,

Kennimenting is an Ocation by re-A Problem is proved y inference.

I. A Problem, is the Propolition to Rion to be proved; the which Problem it is fo proved is the Conclusion, and rodows the Illative note, or note of Inference that which precedes is the Autorecan

which tellows is the Confequent of Constitution the Harve is commen at this word was form and in this doth the the or force of the Migument confift. .

2. Argumentation, may be conflored richer CHAP. Which is the more general confidencion; or self is refreined to corrain man by selical

be therved in his place.

the kinds of Agumentana see whally reckoned to be four, 3 I gift, I at Many Es them is and Example, but may be conducted

two for and mbymens anothing care in meetice Solls of an Execute: an imperieft foldfion: Other Jefs principal kinds of Artumentation there are , which experies of no of a corner Perclued to a Special and Dehomes, which are in cood redundant Stepfart, So des Categorical, and Dritton's Hyper

CHAP. IV.

Of Argumentation.

A Roumentation is an Oration by which some

Problem is proved by inference.

I. A Problem, is the Proposition or Question to be proved; the which Problem, when it is so proved is the Conclusion, and follows the Illative note, or note of Inference: All that which precedes is the Antecedent, that which follows is the Consequent or Conclusion; the Illative is commonly this word (therefore,) and in this doth the tye or force of the Argument consist.

2. Argumentation, may be considered either in reference to the form and manner of Arguing, which is the more general consideration; or as it is restrained to certain matter, as shall

be shewed in his place.

3. The kinds of Argumentation are usually reckoned to be four; Syllogism, Induction, Enthymeme, and Example, but may be reduced to two; for an Enthymeme is nothing but an impersect Syllogism; an Example, an impersect Induction: Other less principal kinds of Argumentation there are, which either are of no use, or may be reduced to a Syllogism; as, Sorites and Dilemma, which are indeed redundant Syllogisms; Sorites Categorical, and Dilemma Hypothetical.

4. A Syllogism, is an Oration, in which something being taken for granted, something else not granted before, is proved or inserred from them.

5. A Syllogism is two fold, Categorical, in which all the Propositions are Categorical: or Hypothetical, in which one or more of the Propositions are Hypothetical; in both which we are to consider the Matter and the Form.

6. The Matter of a Syllogism, is either Re-

mote or Next.

c

75

1

t

7. The Remote matter, is that of which it is remotely made, as the Simple Terms which in the Propositions of the Syllogism are made Sub-

ject and Predicate.

8. The Simple Terms of a Syllogism are three, of which one is called the Middle Term, the other two are the Major and the Minor Extreams, The Major and Minor Extreams are the Predicate, and the other the Subject of the Question, and the Middle Term or Argument, is the Term not expressed in the Question, but is united once to the Major Extream, and once to the Minor.

gifin; is that of which the Syllogism is immediately made, as the three Propositions, which are made of the Simple Terms, of which the the first is called the Major, the second the Minor, and the third is called the Conclusion.

10. The form of a Syllogism is the right disposing of the twofold Matter, Next and Remote, and this comprehendeth two things, Figure,

and

and Mand; the one, to wit Figure, hath respect to the Remote Matter or Simple Termes, and Mood respects the next Matter or the Propositions.

Middle Terms with the Extreams, in reference to Subjection and Predication; this is three-fold.

12. The first Figure maketh that which is the Middle Simple Term to be the Subject in the Major Proposition and the Predicate in the Minor.

13. The second Figure, maketh the Middle Simple Term to be the Predicate, both in the Ma-

jor and the Minor Propositions.

14. The third Figure maketh the Middle Simple Term to be the Subject both in the Major and the Minor Propositions; according to these Distichs.

Both sub and præ, doth the first Figure use. Twice præ the next, the third twice sub I muse.

15. A Mood is the disposing of the Proposi-

16. There are 19 Moods, of which there are nine in the first Figure; four in the second; and six in the third, according to these Verses.

1. Barbara, Celarent, Daris, Ferio, Baraliptop. Celamtes, Dabitis, Fapefmo, Fricesomorum.

2. Cefare, Cameftres, Fefbino, Baroco.

3. Darapti :

Felapton, Difamis, Datisi, Bocardo, Ferison,

17. Thefe

cct

nd o-

he

ce c-

is

IC

C

e

L

17. These Moods are so many Words of Art, which serve only to denote the Quality and Quantity of every Proposition, by help of the Vowels, A, E, I, O, as hath been shewed already; and are some of them Persect, as the sour sirst Moods in the first Figure, and all the Moods in the second and third Figures; the rest are Impersect.

18. And the Question Propounded is proved by or inferredfrom the premises, by help of these Moods two ways, viz. Directly and Indirectly.

I. Directly, when the Minor Extream is the Subject in the Conclusion, and the Major in the Predicate.

2. Indirectly, when the Major Extream is the Subject in the Conclusion, and the Minor the Predicate, and this is in the five last Moods of the first Figure only; according to these Distichs.

All the Nineteen directly do conclude, Except of Figure first, the last & Mood.

19. These things premised, a Syllogism, may be made in any Mood and Figure in this manner.

The Question propounded is always the conclusion of the Syllogism, and by the Quantity thereof doth plainly shew in what Mood or Moods it may be framed, and by consequence, in what Figure also.

Mood as doth directly infer the Conclusion from the Premises; then the Subject in the Proposition is the Minor Extream, and the Predicate the Major; as in the four first Moods of the first Figure, and in all the Moods of the second and third

third Figures; but in the five last Moods of the first Figure, the Subject in the Proposition is the Major Extream, and the Predicate the Minor; and the Middle Term is the Cause or Argument by which the truth or falsitie of the Proposition is to be proved.

joyned to the Major Extream, doth make the Major Proposition, and being joyned to the Minor

Extream, it maketh the Minor Proposition,

Example.

Let this be the Proposition, No Man is a Stone: This Proposition being an Universal Negative, the Syllogisin may be framed in Celarent, Celantes, Cesare or Camestres; if in Celarent, Man is the Minor Extream, and Stone the Major; and to find out the Middle Term, I consider of some Reason or Argument by which to prove the Question; as, A Man is not a Stone, because he is a living Creature; so then Living Creature is the Middle Term, and these three Terms being thus placed;

Middle Term.

Living Creature.

Minor Extream.

Major Extream.

Stone.

Because

Because Celarent belongs to the first Figure, the Middle Term Living Creature must be the Subject in the Major Proposition, and the Predicate in the Minor; thus,

Subj. Pred.

Major. Living Creature. Living Creature.

Conclu. No Man is a Stome.

IC

C

t

n

And joyning this Middle Term to the Major.

Extream, and also to the Minor; the several Propositions will be these;

Major. A Living Creature is not a Stone.

Minor. A Man is a Living Creature.

Conclu. A Man is not a Stone.

Lastly adding the Quantity to every Propofition according to the Vowels in this Mood, the Compleat Syllogism is,

Major. ? Ce- No Living Creature is a Stone.
Minor. } la- Every Man is a Living Creature.
Conclu. S rent. No Man is a Stone.

The like may be done in the other Moods.

22. An Enthymem, is an Imperfect Syllogism, inferring the Conclusion from some one Proposition only; as, A Man is a Living Creature, therefore he hath a Soul.

23. An Induction, is an Imperfect Syllogism, in which from many Singulars, some Universal

Conclu-

Conclusion is inferred; as, This Man is a living Creature, and that Man is a living Creature, &c.

therefore every Man is a living Creature.

24. Example, is an Imperfect Syllogisin, in which from one or more Singulars, we infer another particular; as, Catiline was punished for making of Sedition, therefore this Seditions Fellow

should be punished.

25. Sorites, is an Imperfect Syllogism, in which, from four or more Premises, we inser a Conclusion, in which the first Subject is joyned with the last Predicate; as, Socrates is a Man, a Man is a living Creature, a living Creature is a Body, a Body is a Substance, therefore Socrates is a Substance.

26. A Dilemma, is an Argumentation which by disjoyning of the Members, doth so enforce the Adversary, that which part soever he chooseth, he will be catched; as, Tribute must be given to Cæsar, or to God; If to God, then not to Cæsar, and this is Treason; If to Cæsar, then not

to God, and this is Sacriledge.

And thus much concerning a Syllogism in the General, with the several kinds and forms

thereof.

The line may be cone in the other Modes.

12. An Entroven, is an Imperior Syllogilin, interring the Conclusion from fome, one PACHON only; as, A Mon is a Living Creating, the spore he had a total.

27. An Industries, is an imperfect S. Nogilin, in which from many Singed and Jones Constitution from the constitution of the c

CHAP. V.

Of A Material Syllogifm.

I Come now to speak of a Special or Material Syllogism, as it is constrained to certain Conditions of Matter.

2. A Special or Material Syllogism, is of three forts; Apodictical, Dialectical and Sophistical.

3. An Apodictical Syllogism, otherwise called a Demonstration, may be defined two wayes; either from the end, or from the matter of Demonstration.

4. From the end of Demonstration, an Apodictical Syllogism, is a Syllogism begetting knowledge, or making to know. And we are then said to know a thing, when we know the cause for which it is so, and cannot be otherwise.

to which we affent, for our preceding knowledge of the Premises; and the Pracognita in every Science are these three: The Subject, the Affection, and the Cause. And the means by which these are foreknown, are called Pracognitions, and they are two; That a thing is, and what a thing is.

6. The Subject, is the lefs Extream in a Demonstration, concerning which some accident is Demonstrated by its next Cause; as, a Man, concerning whom we must know both that he is, and what he is.

7. Af

7. Affection or Passion, is a proper accident, which is Demonstrated of the Subject, by a proper Cause, it is always the greater Extream, which is Predicated in the Conclusion; as, Risibility, the which is necessary to be foreknown, in respect of its name, What it is, but not, that it is; for that is the thing to be enquired after, the thing we are to find by Denomination.

8. A Cause, is that by which the Affection is Demonstrated of its Subject, and is always the Major Proposition in the Demonstration; as, Every rational Animal is risible; what the Cause is cannot be foreknown, because it is a compounded Proposition, but it ought to be known, That it is, or else the Conclusion cannot be in-

ferr'd from it.

9. An Apodictical Syllogism, being defined from the matter of Demonstration, is a Syllogism, which proveth its Conclusion from such Premises, as are of themselves sufficiently known.

10. A Demonstration, is to be considered, either in respect of the Matter or in respect of

the Form.

Demonstration, sheweth why the Predicate is inherent in the Subject, and another sheweth that

it is inherent in the Subject.

12. In the first of these kinds of Demonstration, called the Demonstration cansal, why a thing is; the Conditions to be observed, dopartly belong to the Question, partly to the Canse or Medium of the Demonstration, and partly to the Premises.

13. Every

first and most perfect kind of Demonstration, called, Why arbing is? but such a Question only as is true, and hath a certain and immutable Cause of its own Truth.

14. The Medium of a Demonstration, ought to be the next Cause of the Predicate; and that either Efficient or Final, and the Efficient either

Internal or External.

Premises of a Demonstration, are Absolute or Relative.

16. The Absolute Conditions are two; the first is, that the Propositions be necessarily true and reciprocal; The second, is that they be immediate of first, in respect of the Subject; as, A Man is Rational, and in respect of the Causes; as, That which is rational, is visible, a Man is rational, Ergo.

17. The Relative Conditions to be observed in reference to the Conclusion, are three:

1. That the Premises be the Cause of the Conclusion.

2. That they be before it: and

3. That they be more known than the Con-

clusion. of siles

18. The other less principal kind of Demonstration in respect of the Matter, or the Demonstration what, is twofold, the one is from some sensible Effect, and the other from a remote Cause.

19. The form of these Demonstrations, is descerned partly from the Quantity, and so it is Universal or Particular; Partly from the Quality,

Quality, and so it is Affirmative or Negative; Partly from the manner of the Proof, and so it is Oftensive, or by Reduction to Impossibility.

CHAP. VI.

Of a Topical Syllogifm.

Hitherto we have spoken of a Demonstrative Syllogism, whose Matter is necessary, and the end a perfect Knowledge; come we now to a Dialectical or Topical Syllogism, whose Matter is Probable and Contingent, and the end Opinion.

2. In a Dialectical, or Topical Syllogism, we are to consider of Problems, Propositions, and

Invention of Arguments.

3. A Problem or Question, is the thing of which it is probably discoursed, and the Con-

clusion of a Syllogism already made.

4. Dialectical Propositions, ought to be certain, at least probable, and not Paradoxes; now that is said to be Probable, which not being absolutely true, doth seem to be true rather than salse: And that is said to be a Paradox, which is true, though contrary to the vulgar Opinion.

5. For the Invention of Arguments, we are

to confider Common places and Rules.

6. A Place, is common Note, by whose help

an Argument is found.

7. A Rule or Canon, is a Proposition, containing the Reason of the Consequence, in a Distectical Syllogism.

8. Arguments are of two forts, Artificial

and Inartificial.

9. Artificial Arguments, are such as from the consideration of the parts of a Problem, are not found but by Rules of Art.

10. Inartificial Arguments, are such as are found without any help of Art, and these are

nothing but Testimonies.

from these Seven Topicks or Heads. 1. From the Canse and the Effect. 2. From the Subject and the Accident. 3. From Dissentany and Comparison. 4. From Conjugates and Notation. 5. From the Whole and its Parts. 6. From Genus and Species. 7. From Definition and Division.

12. A Caufe in General, may be defined to

be that, by whose power a thing is.

An Argument therefore from the Cause, is when in a probable Syllogism, the middle Term is the Cause of the Major Extream.

as the Material, or Matter, of which a thing is made; and the Formal, by which a thing is; as, The shape and form of a Statue.

External, as the Efficient, which doth bring the thing to pass, and the Final or End, for

which a thing is done! all lo mahina

14. An Argument from the Efficient Caufe, is when



when in a probable Syllogism, the middle Term is the Esticient of the Major Extream: as, The Earth is Diametrically interposed between the Sun and the Moon, therefore the Moon shall be Eclipsed.

15. An Argument from the Final Cause, is when in a Probable Syllogism, the Middle Term

is the Final Cause of the Major Extream.

16. An Argument from the Material Cause, is when in a Probable Syllogism, the middle Term is the Material Cause of the Major Extream, or the Genus or Species thereof.

17. An Argument from the Formal Cause, is when in a Probable Syllogism, the middle Term is the Form, Definition, Description, or Difference

of the Major Extream.

18. In the Topicks of the Subject and the Accident, we do not take the Subject for the Subfrance, in which the Accident is inherent, or the Accident for that which doth precisely and adiquately adhere to the Substance; but Subject is here taken for all that, to which any thing not belonging to its effence is attributed: And Accident is here taken for any such attribute, as Number is the Subject of Equality, that is, it is an Accident of an Accident.

as the middle Term in a Probable Syllogism, is

the Subject of the Major Extream.

a Probable Syllogism, the middle Term is the Adjunct or Accident of the Major Extream.

21. The third General Topick for the Inven-

tion of Arguments, is from Deffentanies and

Comparison.

22. Diffentanes, are either Opposites or Disparates; as, a Horse, and a Bull: There are four kinds of Opposites; Relative, Compary, Privative, and Contradictory. Comparisons are either in respect of Quality; as, like and unlike, or in respect of Quantity, or also of Degrees; as, equal and unequal; and what ever may be said to be more or less or equal.

23. An Argument from Diffentanies, is when in a Probable Syllogism, the Middle Term is opposed to the Major Extream, whether it be by way of a Disparate, or a Contrary, or otherwise.

24. An Argument from Comparison, is as of as in a Probable Syllogism, one part of the Majer Proposition is compared with the other, in reference to their agreement or their disagreement.

25. The fourth general Topick, for the Invention of Arguments, is from Conjugates and Notation. And they are properly called Conjugates, which for the affinity of Signification, have also an affinity in the Voice or Sound; as, Just, Justice, and Justly; fome Conjugates are only Nominal, some Real, and some both, and do comprehend Denominatives under them, and are either Substantives where one is a Noun Substantive abstracted from the Subject; as, Justice, Just; or Adjectives, where they be both Deniminatives, or Concretes, which shew the form in the Abftract; as, Just, Infly. Notation or Ermel gy, is the Explication of a Word by the Original thereof; as, a Conful, from Counfelling the Com-26. An mon-Wealth.

26. An Argument from Conjugates, is as oft as in a Probable Syllogism; the one the Conjugates in the Major Proposition, is the Subject of the Major Term; as, He that doth Justly is Just.

27. The first General Topick for the Inventing of Arguments, is from the whole and its parts. And an Argument from the thing divided to the divided Members, is as oft as the thing divided is the Middle Term, and the dividing Members the Major Extream, in a Probable Syllogism. And an Argument from the dividing Members, to the thing divided, is as oft as the dividing Members are the middle Term, and the thing divided the Major Extream.

28. The fixth General Topick, is from Genus and Species; And an Argument from Genus and Species, is when we prove that a thing doth not agree with the Genus, because it doth not agree with the Species; or that it doth not agree with the Species, because it doth not agree with

the Genus.

19. The seventh General Topick for the Inventing of Arguments, is from Definition, and Division. We raise an Argument from the Topick or Definition, when we seek for the Definition of either Extream, that is, of the Subject or the Predicate in the Question, which being found, is put into the place of the Mean, that it may be known whether the Extreams should be conjoyned or separated; thus we prove that Peter is a Man, because he is a Rational living Greature. We argue from the Topick of Division, when we show something

ta

to

it

gı

ne

i

The English Academy.

201

to agree with the dividing Members, because it agrees with the thing divided, or not to agree with the thing divided, because it doth not agree with any of the Dividing Members.

30. Inartificial Arguments, are only such as are raised from Divine or Humane Testimony. And an Argument is raised from Testimony, as oft as the Authority of him that beareth witness, is the middle Term, agreeing or not agreeing with the Major Extream.

CHAP.

CHAP. VII.

Of a Sophistical Syllogism.

A Sophistical Syllogism, is a Captious Argumentation, which is feemingly, or apparently true, but is indeed deceitful.

2. Sophistical, or Fallacious Arguing, is either in respect of the Words or of the Things.

3. Fallacies in Words, are five; Ambiguitie, Amphibolie, Composition, Division, and Figure

of a Word.

4. Fallacies in things are seven, Accident, Of a thing spoken after a fort, to a thing spoken Simply; Ignorance of the Argument; a false or wrong Cause, Consequent, Beginning of the Question, and an asking of many Questions.

CHAP.

CHAP. VIII.

Of Method.

M Ethod is the disposing of things belonging to the same Matter or Subject, so, as that they may be best understood, and easiest remembred.

Method is twofold, Natural or Arbitrary.

3. A Natural Method, is that in which the order of Nature and our distinct Knowledge is observed.

4. In a Natural Method, we must speak first of Generals, and then of Particulars; and as we proceed from one thing to another, every part must have a dependence on that, which was last spoken of by some apt transition.

5. A Natural Method, is either Total, or

Partial.

T

6. A Total Method, is that in which a whole Science is Methodically ordered or dispersed. And this is either, Symbetical, or Analytical.

7. A Synthetical or Compositive Mothod, is that which begins with the first and most Simple Principles, and so proceeds to those which do arise from, or are Composed of the first Principles.

8. An Analytical or Resolutive Method, is that which begins with the end, and so proceeds still lower and lower, till we come to the first

and most Simple beginnings.

9. A

9. A Partial Method, is that, by which any part of any Art or Science is Methodically or dered or disposed: or by which any particular Theme or Subject, is handled by it felf.

10. An Arbitrary Method, is that, which not regarding the Natural order, is fitted for fuch a confused Knowledge, as may be most taking with the People, or fute best with their Capa-

cities.

And thus much concerning Method, which is the fourth and last Logical Instrument; and with this I shall conclude these my Logical Precepts, and last Part of my English Academy: He that defires to be more fully acquainted with these Arts and Sciences, may for all but Musick, Read my other particular Tracts of these Subjects, till fome body that hath more knowledge in them, shall furnish us with more ample and perfect Imftructions; and as for Musick, I am much of Opinion, that Mr. Playford's Introduction my very well ferve, to Inftruct our Youth in the first Principles of that excellent Science; For which, and all other helps of Learning, To the only Wife God, be all Honour and Glory, now and for ever. Amen.

FINIS. that which best his with the ond, and Ib prous

field lower and lower, till we come to the fall

and most Shaple beginning

Principles and to proceed to those which do apple hoor, or are Compole of the first Princi u

h

Tooks fold by Thomas Patiengue, a Threa Bibles on London-Berling.

He Elements of Velocity in Two Volumes

Pag. 9. line 13. manner read mannen. p. 29.1. 5. lines r. times. p. 30.1. 22. or four r. of four. p. 36. 1. 22. last r. least. p. 37.1. 1. last r. least. p. 41. 1. 14. 5. 7. 5 p. 50. 1. 19. demonstration r. demand p. 54. 1. 16. line r. time. p. 61. 1. 23. at r. to. p. 62.1. 8. Tables, that r. Tables is such, that p. 71. 1. 27. r. and the Side Subtending. p. 84. 1. 19. r. contained by planes. p. 90. 1. 9. r. have the same sound or tune. p. 92. 1. 4. when r. where. p. 99. 1. 16. is the shortest r. and the shortest. p. 114. 1. 16. r. os of the cs = S, p. 125. 1. 6, 7. is the Suns greatest r, from the Suns least Meridian Altitude is.

Signers, thewing the fattice of God on the one and his Merey towards the other, see fatth a force thousand of Evamples, by S. and and J. the

Volumes in Felio.

Keriev

Royal and Practical Chyraidines, by Ofivaldal Crolling, and Februarian, faithmaly rendred into English, Follo, price 10 c.,

Gods Revenge against Morther, by Jule Reported, Containing thirty Tragged Scories, Gods, newly reprinted, Folia,

Lord Burn's Matural History, Folio, Mice'? Sandy's Travits, Concaming a Abeliage, on o the Timbell Empire, of Exper, and the Foly Land Books fold by Thomas Passenger, at the Three Bibles on London-Bridge.

The Elements of Algebra, in Two Volumes, Folio; Comprised in four Books, by John

Kerfey.

Thesaurus Astrologia, or a Treasury of Astrology and Physick, Containing the most Abstruct Learning, relating to each. Published by John Gadbury, Student in Astrology and Physick, large Octavo.

The Compleat Academy, or Nursery of Complements, Containing the best Letters, Discourses, and Songs extant; being a pretty Companion for Gentlemen and Ladies, price 13.

A Mirror or Looking-glass for Saints and Sinners, shewing the Justice of God on the one, and his Mercy towards the other. Set forth in some thousand of Examples, by Sam. Clark, late Minister of Bennet-Finck, London, in two Volumes in Folio.

Royal and Practical Chymistry, by Oswaldus Croslins, and John Hartman, faithfully rendred

into English, Folio, price 10 s.

Gods Revenge against Murther, by John Reynolds, Containing thirty Tragical Stories, digested into fix Books, newly reprinted, Folio, price 10 s.

Lord Bacon's Natural History, Folio, price 81.
Sandy's Travils, Containing a Description of the Turkish Empire, of Egypt, and the Holy Land,

of the remote parts of Italy, and Islands adjoyning, Folio, price 8 s.

Markham's Master-piece.

the

ies,

ohn

noulc

ola

k,

m-

hf-

ty

S.

nd

e,

in

te

d

71

4

f

Roman Antiquities, by The. Godwin, Quarto, price 2 s. 6 d.

The Famous History of the Destruction of Troy, in Three Books, Quarto, price 3 s.

Valentine and Orfon, price 184.

Etymologicum parvum, by Francis Gregory, octavo, price 3 s.

Spiritual Antidotes against sinful Contagion, by Tho. Doolittle, price 18 d.

Pool's Dialogue betwixt a Papift and a Prote-

fant, Twelves, price 1 s.

Monasticon Favershamiense; Or a Description of the Abby of Faversham, Octavo, price 18 d.

The Christians Crown of Glory; or Holiness the way to Happiness, Octavo, price 18 d.

The Path way to Health, price 184

The Complete Academy, or Nursery of Complements, price 13.

The Book of Knowledge in three parts,

price 10 d.

The Book of Palmiftry, in Octavo, price 18 d.
The Wife Virgin, being a Narrative of Gods
dealing with Martha Haffeld, price 18 d.

The Pilgrims Port, or the weary Mans reft in

the Grave, in Twelves, price 1 s.

The Famous History of the five Wise Philosophers, containing the Life of Jehosaphat, Son of Avenerio, Empirour of Corma, and his wonderful Conversion to the Christian Faith.

The

The great Affize, by Sam. Smith.

The Delectable History of Amadis de Gaul.
The pleasant History of Paladine of England.
The Bear-baiting of Women.

The Hiftory of Fryar Bacon, and Fryar Bungy

New conceited Letters.

The Jovial Garland, containing all the newest Songs that are now used.

The Penitem Prodigal, or a gracious Reproof

The Ciristians best Exercise in the worst of

times, by 7. H.

Scarborough Spaw, being a Description of the nature and virtues of the Spaw of Scarborough in Tork shire, by Doctor Wittie.

The French School-Mafter.

Farnables Epigrams.

Newsons Art of Logick. Decilian On T

Newtons Art of Rhetorick, gold of war

The Famous History of Don Bellianis of Greece, in three Parts, being now complete.

The Famous History of Montelion, Knight of

the Oracle is a spoolwould lo slood of

Hodders Arithmetick, in Twelves.

Ovid de triftibus, in English.

Bishop Hall's Soliloquies, in Twelves. 311

The Poems of Ben. Johnfon, Junior. div gailand

A plain and familiar Exposition of the Ten Commandments, by John Dodow I

of America, Emprove of Ossa and derful Convertion to

id. of of of M 5 1 2 3

()

THE ENGLISH

ACADEMY:

Or, A Brief
INTRODUCTION
TO THE

SEVEN LIBERAL ARTS.

Grammar, [] Astronomie, 1052
Arithmetick;] Rhetorick, 1455
Geometrie, 577 &

Musick, 89. | Logick, 171.

Chiefly intended for the Instruction of Young Scholars, who are acquainted with no other than their Native Language; But may also be very useful to other Persons that have made some progress in the Studies of the said Arts.

By John Newton, D. D.

LONDON,

Printed by W. Godbid, for Tho. Passinger, at the Three Bibles, on London-Bridge, 1677.

ACY
N55
Randelles
LIBRARIES
CATCAGO, LLL

Gong

1165242 cha

ERECTION OF THE PROPERTY OF TH

TO THE

READER.

Have perhaps troubled thee and the Press already too much; if it be so, I shall however hope, that I am

not unpardonable, because I have still intended well to the good of the Publick; every one I think desires to give their Children the best Education that they can; but the highest degree of Education is not always best: And I must beg thy Pardon, if I do offend A 2 thee,

thee, in faying, That next to the live bare Reading of English, the sen- Art ding of Children to the Latin-Las School, is not the best way of ick giving them Education, for if that were granted, which I must give deny, That the Latin and Greek Tongues were not only necessary for all Children whatsoever, but also more easily learned, than the liberal Arts; yet Writing is so necessary to be first Learned, that it is almost impossible to attain the other without it.

lg

he

m

no

Gi

ni

ce

th

gi W

in W

a

And as Writing is very necessary in order to the Latin and Greek Tongues, so is it also necessary in order to the true Spelling and Understanding of the English, or any other Native Language; and indeed the Art of Grammar is the only One of the Seven, that claimes a propriety in every Native

e live Language: As for the other . - Arts, they are the same, in all - Languages, the Rules of Arithmef tick and Geometry, of Musick and f Astronomy, of Rhetorick and Logick, are in the General, as Intel-lgible in every Language, as in he Latin and Greek, or any other; und therefore to them, that have no other need of the Latin and Greek Tongues, than the Learning of these Arts, may, I conceive, spare that pains, and Learn them in their own Native Language, or as many of them, as will be thought useful for them, in their several Stations in the World.

Again, these Arts are not only attainable in every Native Language, but more easily attainable than the Latin and Greek Tongues are, to which some seem A 4 desirous

desirous to confine the Arts; and being so attained, do render other

Languages more easie also.

For these, and the like Reason: as I have already Published distinct Introductions to every Art, excep Musick; for which I refer thee to Mr. Joh. Playford's Introduction; for now I have been eafily perswaded to give thee a short view of then altogether; he that desires mon full Instruction, may peruse the several Tracts by me Written, in our own, or those that are writter by other Men in other Languages The whole Building is but small and therefore I will not make the Porch great, I have placed the Arts in that Order, in which, (with Submission to better Judgements) I do conceive they should be learned: And although I cannot fay now, as I have in some of my Epistles he

ons

né

ep

ed

en

Ort

h

id

es es

he he

th

Epiftles preceding my former Tracts, that there is not so much as one Mathematical School in England, for now there is by His Majesties Bounty a fair Foundation laid in Christ-Church-Hospital, London, and one chosen to Manage it, by Name Mr. J. Leake, who is so well known, that he needeth no Mans Commendations to express his Worth; Yet thus much I still declare to be my Opinion, That it is more proper, that the Latin School should be supplied with Scholars from the Mathematical, than that the Mathematical should be supplied from the Latin and Greek Schools's However by this means, I hope it will come to pass, that afterages will be supplied with that Knowledge in Arithmetick, Geometry, and Astronomy, which hitherto our Writing-Masters have

not

not been able to Teach, nor our Grammar Masters either able or willing to undertake; so that in a Word, There are few Country School-Masters that can Teach these things: But yet amongst them, the well Accomplished Mr. Perkins of Guildford, with whom I have not had the happiness to be immediately Acquainted, yet Report hath rendred him to the World a worthy Master and Teacher of that Science. And there are not many Tutors in either of our Universities that do; and yet the usefulness of these Arts cannot be denied, and therefore my hopes are, that some Universal Encouragement will yet be given for the Teaching of them.

And could I be so happy, as to see something done in order to it,

I should think my self abundantly satisfied for all the Pains I have hitherto taken, and shall ever rest,

Thine and his Countrys Servant,

JOHN NEWTON.

[io] . seat ski Llisto ins i 403, CO+ I

THE

PREFACE

OR

INTRODUCTION

TO THE

Arts and Sciences in the General.



Isdom is the Principal thing, and therefore saith Solomon, Get Wisdom, and with all thy getting, get Understanding. Prov. 4.7. and what is meant by Wis-

dom, Holy Job tells us, Job 28. 28. Behold the Fear of the Lord, that is Wisdom, and to depart from Evil, that is Understanding. They who seek for

for this Wisdom, are the only true Philo. sophers; for Philosophie is nothing else but the love of wisdom, and they who Fear God, and depart from Evil, are the lovers of that, which is the only real and true Wisdom: Now for as much, as we cannot be said to fear God, except we know him, Wisdom may well be defined to be, the Knowledge of God and the things that are of him, the knowledge of things Divine and Humane, and this is commonly called Philosophie, but somewhat improperly, for Philosophie is not properly the Knowledge it self, but the love of that Knowledge; and whatfoever Art or Science doth conduce to this Knowledge, may be rightly and truly called Sophia, or Wifdom; and because all Men should love such Knowledge and Delight in it, I shall not gainsay the general Name by which it is called, custom will have it so, let it therefore be called Philosophy.

Sophia then, or Philosophia, Wisdom, or the love of Wisdom, is the Knowledge of all Arts and Sciences, which any way do conduce to the Knowledge of God: And because some of them do thereunto conduce more, some less: These arts may be distin-

guished

guished into two Sorts, Superiour and Inferiour.

The Superiour Arts are four;

0. Se

he

ed

pe

w

at

i-

ly

0-

ıt

i-

-

e

11

t

t

e

e

1. Theologie or Divinity, whose subject is the Divine Esfence.

2. Metaphylicks, otherwise called the first Philosophy, whose Subject is, Being

in common , or Being as Being.

3. Physicks, whose Subject is the Knowledge of Natural Bodies, as they are Natural

4. Ethicks , whose Subject is Morality ; or the Doctrin of Manners and civil Honesty.

The Inferiour Arts are of two forts;

- 1. Internal or Liberal Arts, fo called, because they are attained by the Faculties of the Soul, which is a liberal or free agent, and not by the Labour or Ministry of the Hands; and these are seven:
 - 1. Grammar, 5. Astronomie, 2. Arithmetick, 6. Rhetorick,

§ 7. Logick,

3. Geometrie,

4. Musick,

And these are the Subjects of this little Book.

2. The External or Mechanical and Manual Arts, so called, because they depend more upon the labour of the Body, than the Mind; such are the Arts of Tillage; Hunting, Fishing, Fowling, Weaving, and many more, not needful to be named; because no part of the ensuing Discourse.

ornal or Live.

THE

THE ENGLISH

ACADEMY.

The FIRST PART.

OF GRAMMAR.

BOOK I.

CHAP. LT. 8.A. A.

Of Letters and Syllables.



Linete

tle

nd

e-

Rammar is an Art which Teacheth how to Speak and Write truly.

The Parts thereof are Four, Letters, Syllables, Words and Sentences.

A Letter is a Character, or Index, of a fimple found. And in the English Tongue there are Twenty four.

The which Letters are distinguished from one another, partly by their shapes, and partly by their sounds.

B

In

Ť

In reference to their shapes, they are distinguished by three different Characters, the Roman, Italick, and black English.

And in each of these Characters there is the

great and the small Letter.

In the Roman Character, the great Letter is thus formed,

A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O, P, Q, R, S, T, U, V, W, X, Y, Z.

The fmall thus,

a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j,k, l, m, n,o,p,q, r, f, s,t,n, t,w,x, y, z.

The great and small Italiek Letters are made thus.

A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O, P, Q, R, S, T, U, V, W, X, T, Z.

a, b, c, did Mebijak, b, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, s, t, u, v, w, x, y, z.

The great and small black English thus

A, 26, C, D, C, F, O, H, J, L, 20, A, D, P, D, P, D, W, D, T, W, TH, T, E, S,

a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, f, f, f, f, l, m, n, o,

The great Letters are used in the beginning of proper Names, Emphatical words, Sentences, and Verses. The Letter I when it stands alone, is always written with a great Character.

Thefe

-

These Twenty and four Letters are divided

A Vowel is a letter which maketh a find and perfect found of it felf, and they are five source,

i, o, u, befides the Greek Vowel y.

in-

he

he

is

٧,

q,

de

0,

3,

0,

g

s,

A Confonant is a letter which maketh a found by help of a Vowel, and thefe are Eighteen, befides the letters j, v, and y, which fometimes are Confonants alfo.

Of the eighteen Confonants, fome are mittes, as these eight, b, c, d,g,k,p,g, and t. Soffle femi-Vowels, as thele eight, J, I, m, n, r, s, x, and z, of which these four, 1, m, n, +, are also called Liquids, x and z, double Confonants, and the other two, b, and w, irregular Letters. a bobne of of to to to bounded a letters.

Some of thefe Letters is well Vowels as Confonants have founds very different from their common marnes. Thus the letter o before ey and is founded like f, but before at other wis founded like & as in car, ett, on to down

The Letter f, is fometimes dounded heterding to its usual name, as when it follows a Vowel, as in if, of, effeminate, but when it begins a Word or Syllable, "it is founded fre, its own proper found, as as in feet, fooligh.

The Letter o, before a o, and w, is founded hard thus, ohee, as in gad, God, gua, but before e and Tit is fometimes, But not always, founded according to its usual name geet, at the danger, ginger.

The Letter b is never founded according to its name ach, but thus, hee, as in hund, Help, him.

The Letters j and v, when they come before themselves or any other Vowel in the same Syllable, become Consonants and have different sounds from their usual names, j is pronounced like g, soft, thus ji is pronounced like gi, in ginger, u is pronounced vee, or vu, as in vanish, vine; and when they are thus sounded, their shape is also changed, and hence some would have them to be distinct Letters, and would have the number of our Letters to be not 24, but 26.

The Liquids 1, m, n, and r, when they begin a Word or Syllable, are founded thus, lee, mee,

nee, ree, as in light, mind, need, read.

The Letter q, hath alwayes u after it, to help its found, but is not to be founded according

to its name en, but que, as in question.

The Letter f, when it begins a Word or Syllable, is to be founded thus, fee, as in fad, fecret, but in the end of a Word, or between two Vowels or Diphthongs, it hath for the most part the found of z, as in easie, bosom.

The Letter t, before i, if another Vowel followeth hath the found of si, as in Egyptian, patience; but when it followeth f or x, it hath its own proper found, as in bestial, mixtion.

The Letter w, hath its name from its shape, being composed of twice u, it is called double u, but is in no case so sounded, but we, as in wall, well, will.

The Letter x, when it begins a Word or Syllable, is founded thus, xee, as in Xerxes; in

other cases thus, ex, or ecs.

The

CC

gi

m

:

2

O

P

V

ti

d

f

t

a

t

The Letter y, hath by no means its found according to its usual name wi, but when it begins a Word or Syllable, and so becomes a Confonant, it is sounded yee, when it comes in the middle or end of a Word, it is sounded like i Vowel, as in my, thy.

The Letter z, is to be founded zee, as in

Zeal.

e.

ne

nt

ed

in-

h ,

ir

ld

ld

١,

in

:,

lp

g

1.

,

0

Æ

L

h

,

,

.

1

A Syllable is a literal or articulate Voice of one individual found.

Syllables are of two forts, improper and

proper.

An Improper Syllable is made of one or more Vowels without a Confonant, as a-my, e-vil,

A-neas, Oe-dipus.

A Proper Syllable is the comprehension of one or more Consonants, with one or more Vowels, in one sound or breath; as Ge-ne-ration, Mountain, and in our English Tongue doth sometimes consist of eight Letters, as strength.

When two Vowels are joyned together in one found or breath, they are called Dipthongs; of which there are two forts, Proper

and Improper.

Of proper Dipthongs, there are these eight, ai, ei, oi, au, eu, ou, ee, and oo.

The first fix are fometimes written thus, ay,

ey, oy, aw, ew, ow.

Of improper Dipthongs there are but these

three, ea, oa, and ie.

The two Vowels which make a Dipthong, are for the most part to be founded together,

B 3

as in Faith, neither, Eunuch, but in these words, Laity, Mosaick-work, Deity, Atheist, moity, doing, reenter, reiterate, and such like, and in most Proper Names in the Bible they are to be soun-

ded feverally.

The Improper Dipthongs ea and oa, are founded together, except in these Words, beatifude, creator, oreation, real, theatre, and most proper names of Women, Cities, and Countries; but the two Vowels in this Dipthong ei, are usually parted; except in these two Words, friend, grief, and when they come in the end of a Word, as in mercie, charitie, and such like.

An English Syllable, though it may consist of eight Letters, yet doth it never begin with more than two Vowels before a Consonant, or three Consonants before a Vowel or Dipthong.

The two Consonants which may begin an English Word or Syllable are these thirty, Bl, br, ch, cl, cr, dr, dw, fl, fr, gl, gn, gr, kn, pl, pr, sc, sh, sk, sp, fl, sm, sn, sq, jw, th, tr, tw, when and wr.

the three Confonants that may begin

an English Word are these nine, Sch, fer, flir, skr, fpl, fpr, ftr, thr, thw.

In the founding of the Confonants which are joyned together in the beginning of a Word, there is no difficulty, but in these few, ch, gh, and th.

The Letters ch when they come before a Vowelin a pure English Word, they are to be founded as in chance, cheap; and when they

com

come after a Vowel, they are to be sounded, as in ach, reach, rich. But in Words derived from the Greek and Hebrew, they are to be sounded like k, as in character, these sew only excepted, Rachel, Cherubin, Tychicus, Archelishop, Arch-Duke, Architech, Anch-enemy, Arch-pirat.

The Letters gb, in the beginning of a Word, are to be founded like g hard, as in ghost, ghest, in the middle of a Word, they are either not founded at all, or but foftly, as in might, light, and in the end of a Word they have the

found of ff, as cough, tough.

These Letters th, in Words of one Syllable and in Words of more than one, ending in ther, thed, theth, thest, thing, they have the sound of d, in other words the sound of r, or the Greek Theta.

The Letters ph never begin a pure English Word, but such only as are derived from the Greek and Hebrew, as Pharisee, Pharez, Epitaph,

and in these they are founded like f.

The Liquids, *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*, when another Confonant doth precede them in the beginning or middle of a Word, do retain their own found, but in the end of a Word, though the Vowel's ought to be written, yet in the pronunciation, you must stop at the two Confonants, and omit the Vowel; for Example, fable, acre, uncle, must be pronounced as though they were written thus, fabl, acr, uncl.

B 4 OTCHAP.

000

rds,

oing,

Roff

oun-

are

ds,

noft

un-

ong

wo

e in

and

of

ith

or

ng.

an

1,

n,

r,

in

r,

e

CHAP. II.

Of Words.

Word, is such a comprehension of Letters and Syllables, as helpeth Man-kind to express their minds to one another.

There are eight kinds of Words, or parts of Speech, Noun, Pronoun, Verb, Participle, Adverb, Conjunction, Preposition, Interjection.

A Noun, is the name of a Person or Thing;

as, an Author, a Book, learned, guilded.

Of Nouns, some be Substantives, and some

be Adjectives.

A Noun Substantive, is a Word, that fignifieth fomething, and may have the fign (a) or (the) before it; as, a Man, the Book.

A Noun Adjective, is a Word, that cannot

fignifie a thing of it felf; as, good, bad.

There are two forts of Nouns Substantives.

A Noun Substantive proper, and a Noun Subftantive common.

A Noun substantive proper, is a Noun that is proper to the person or thing, that it betokeneth; as, Henry, England.

A Noun substantive common, is a Noun common to all things of the same kind; as, a Man,

a Land, an Angel.

To a Noun there doth belong two things,

number and comparison.

There be two Numbers, the singular and the plural; The Singular number speaketh but of

One,

0

Be

tu

5.

ck

711

in

0:

ti

t

d

t

t

One; as, a Man, a Book, a Stone. The Plural number speaketh of more than One; as, Men,

Books, Stones.

.

f

1

;

Nouns substantive of the singular number, are turned into the plural, by adding unto them s or es, as web, webs, robe, robes, Church, Churches, hedg, hedges. Some Nouns of the singular number ending in f, being plurals, do change f into v, as beef, beeves, calf, calves. And some are made plurals, by adding of en or ren; as, Ox, oxen, chick, chicken, brother, brotheren, or by contraction, brethren, child, children; of Man is formed manner, or men, house, housen, hose, hosen; to which may be added, mouse, mice, louse, lice, die, dice, sow, swine, cow, kine, penie, pence, goose, geefe, tooth, teeth, foot, feet; these two, Sheep and Mile, are both singular and plural; as, one sheep, ten sheep, one mile, ten mile or miles.

Other variation of Nouns we have none in the English Tongue; all other distinctions are made by these Articles and Prepositions; a, of,

to, the, o, and in or, from, &c.

Nouns that signifie the Male kind, we call hees; such as signifie the Female, we call shees; and of such as signifie neither, we say it; as, Esau could not obtain his Fathers Blessing, though he sought it, with tears: Jezabel was a wicked Woman, for she slew the Lords Prophets.

Comparison belongeth only to Nouns Adjetives, whose fignification may be increased, or

diminished.

There be three degrees of Comparison, the Positive, Comparative, and the Superlative.

The

The Positive degree setteth down the quality of a thing absolutely without excess, as hard, soft, swift.

The Comparative degree raiseth the fignification of the Positive in comparison of some

other, as harder, fofter, fwifter.

The Superlative exceedeth his positive in the

highest degree, as hardest, softest, swiftest.

Adjectives are compared in the English tongue, either by the figns more and most, or by the terminations er, and est, as hard, harder, or more hard, hardest, or most hard.

Some Adjectives are compared irregularly; as, Good, better, best; bad, worse, worst; little

less, leaft.

CHAP. III.

Of a Pronoun.

Pronoun is a part of Speech, much like to a Noun, implying a Person, and not admitting the Sign a or the, before it.

There are twelves Pronouns, I, Thou, He, who, which, that, the Same, my, thy, this, his,

whose.

Of Pronouns, some be primitives and some derivatives.

Pronoun primatives are of three forts, Perfonal, Relative and Demonstrative.

There are three Pronoun personals, I, Thou,

and He.

Pronoun

Pronoun Relatives, are likewise three, who, which and that.

Pronoun Demonstratives, are these two, this,

the same.

lity

rd,

ica-

me

the

ue,

or

y ;

ttle

d-

,

e

-

5

n

Pronoun Derivatives are these four, my, thy, his, whose. All which with their variations, are expressed in the following Type.

Possessives.

1. Person. Sing. SI, me, my, mine. Plur. we, us, our, ours.

2. Person. Sing. Sthou, thee, thy, thine, Plur. Sye, you, your, yours.

g. Person. Sing. Smal. he, him, his.

Fem. she, her, hers.

neith. it, its.

Plur. ≺ they them, their, theirs.

Relatives. \{ To perf. \{ \text{who, whom, whofe.} \} \{ To thing. \{ \text{what, whereof.} \} \}

Own is a Noun adjective, and self or setues a Substantive, but are sometimes joyned to, or compounded with the Pronouns; as, my self, they self, themselves, his own self, their own selves.

This word where, with certain Prepositions following it; as, about, at, by, in, of, unto, with, hath the signification of which as, wherein, or in which. And these words, here, there, are in like manner used for, this, that; as, herewith, therewith, for with this, with that.

CHAP.

CHAP. IV.

Of a Verb and Participle.

A Verb is a part of Speech, that joyneth the Signification of other Words together.

There are three kinds of Verbs; Active, Paffive, and Neuter.

A Verb Active, is a Verb that betokeneth do-

ing, as I love.

A Verb Passive, is a Verb which betokeneth fuffering, as I amloved-

A Verb Neuter, is a Verb which betokeneth

being, as I am.

Four things belong to a Verb; Mood, Tenfe, Number, and Person.

There are four Moods, the Indicative, the Im-

perative, the Potential, and the Infinitive.

The Indicative either sheweth a reason true or false, as I love, or asketh a Question, as, dost thou love?

The Imperative Mood, intreateth, permitteth,

or commandeth, as love he, or let him love.

The Potential Mood, fignifieth a power, duty, or defire, and hath one of these Signs, may, can, might, would, should, could, or ought, as I may or can love.

The Infinitive Mood, notes no certain Number or Person, but solloweth another Verb, or an Adjective, and hath commonly this Sign (to) before it, as I desire to learn, worthy to be praised.

The Tenfes or distinctions of Time, are five,

The

1

The Present Tense, the Preserimperfect Tense, the Preserperfect Tense, the Preserpluperfect Tense,

and the Future Tenfe.

These Tenses in respect of signification, are thus distinguished; in the Indicative Mood, do is the sign of the Present Tense, did of the Preterimpersect Tense, have of the Preterpersect, had of the Preterplupersect, shall and

will of the Future,

r.

1

In the Potential Mood, by the figns already given, the Prefent Tense by the figns may or can, the Preterimpersect would, should, could, or ought, and the Preterpersect, by annexing the fign have to the former Signs, and the Future, by adding hereafter to the figns of may or can, the Signs of the Present; as, I may or can hereafter, the Preterplupersect in this Mood is wanting in the English Tongue.

But in respect of Termination, there are no Moods but one, no Tenses but two, namely,

the Present, and Preterimperfect Tenles.

And the Preterimperfect Tense is formed from the Present, by adding thereto the termination (ed) and in some sew the termination (en) as of

love is formed loved, of fall, fallen.

The Persons in every Tense are distinguished by the personal Pronouns, I, Thou, and He, in the Singular Number, and We, Te, They, in the Plural; only the Second Person Singular in the Present and Preterimpersect Tenses is formed from the first, by adding thereto the Termination est, as of love, lovest, of loved, loveds; and the Third Person Singular in the Present

Tenfe

Tense is formed from the First, by adding there to the Termination (eth) as of love is formed loveth, other variations of Persons or Tenses there is none, but what is done by Signs, as was said before.

A Verb Active then is thus formed in the Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

Sing. Love, lovest, loveth. Plur. Love, Infinitive, To love.

Preterimperfect Tense.

Sing. Loved, loveds, loved. Plural. Loved.

This Verb Neuter, Am or Be is thus formed.

In the Present? Am, art, is,? Plur. Are.

Tense. SBe, beest, be, S Plur. Bee.

In the Preserim- Was, wast, was,? Plural.

perfect Tense. S Were, wert, were, S Were.

Infinitive. To be.

A Verb Passive, is the same throughout all Moods and Tenses, with a Verb Nemer, the Preterimpersect Tense of the Active Voice, being added thereunto; Thus the Passive Voice of this Verb Active, I love, is formed, by adding loved to all the Tenses and Persons of this Verb Neuter, I am.

For Example.

The Present Tense of the Indicative Mood is thus formed,

I am loved,
Thou art loved,
He is loved.

We are loved,
They

re.

ed

fes

vas

he

e,

d.

d.

al.

e,

H

g

I

A Participle is a part of Speech, derived of a Verb, from which it hath Signification, of Time present, past, or to come.

There are two Participles, one of the

Active, and another of the Paffive Voice.

The Participle of the Active Voice is derived from its Verb, by adding the Termination (ing) to the Present Tense; as of lave, loving.

The Participle of the Passive Voice is for the most part, the same with the Passive feet Tense of the Active; as the Participle of the Passive Voice in this Verblove is loved.

From this General Rule many Verbs are mon

- in the state of	Andrea & Survey and and and and
made To	take, tooks taken in
	Thakey Thook, Thaken
bereft 100	feeth, fod, foddenol
Timelto III	thear, there, flores
fought	rife, rofe, rifen Sim
beletight	gives gave given
thought	Brive Browe Striven
wrought	fing, hing, fing de
bought	know, knew, known
ground	throw, threw, thrown
flood	go, went, gone,
	bereft finelt fought belought thought wrought bought ground

Of these, see more in my School Pastime.

CHAP. V.

Of Adverbs, Conjunctions, Prepositions, and Interjections.

AN Adverb is a Word joyned to a Verb or Noun, to declare their Signification. Some of Time, as when, now, then, to day. Some of Number, as, how oft, once, twice.

Some of Order, as, first, next, afterward.

Some of Place, as where, here, there. Some of Affirming, as, yea, perhaps.

Some of Denying, as, no, not. Some of Shewing, as, lo, behold.

Some of Similitude, as, fo, how much, more:

A Conjunction is a part of Speech, which joyneth Words and Sentences together, of which these are some, And, also, likewise, nor, neither, whether, or, either, but, for, &c.

A Preposition, is a Word commonly set before other parts of Speech, either in apposition, as before the Master, or in composition, as over-

wife.

An Interjection is a Word, expressing some suddain passion of the Mind, oh, alass, Ostrange, ho, hark, sirrah.

dition to the Priving A A HO

Of Dividing of Words anto Syllables.

ms;

crb

7,

-

1,

7.

e

For the dividing of Words into Syllables

Two Vowels which make no Dipthong must be divided; as, ie, in, ua; as in qui-at, triumph, mutu-al.

2. Those Consonants which are doubled in the middle of a Word, must be divided; as in Abba, accord, adder.

Except they, be needlesly doubled, as in words of the Plural Number; as in crabbs, rodds.

Except fuch words in which they are doubled for distinction sake; as in the words. Ann. Cam. Inn.

3. Rule. When a Conforant cometh between two Vowels, it is to be joyned to the latter; as in a-vail, a-ni-mate.

But to this Rule there are four Exceptions.

of the Plural Number, and Verbs of the third person Singular, in which this particle is for the most part swallowed up, in the former Syllable; but in all proper Names sexcept Charles and James, it makes a diffine Syllable.

2. Except Words that are compounded of fuch Simple Words, as are fignificant apart, in which each Simple Word must retain its own letters; as, Tradef-man, Safe-guard, hence forth.

2. Es

2. Except Derivative Words, whose ad. dition to the Primitive, doth fignific nothing of it felf, in which the Primitive must be founded by it felf, and the addition by it felf; as, hope-less, lowing, joyn-ing, and such like. --

between two Vowels, in which it must be joyned to the first Vowel; as, ox-en, ex-ercife.

4. Rules Any two or three Confonants, which may be joyned together in the beginning of a Word, are not to be separated in the middle; as in a-gree, be-flow, en-thrall, defruction: but, in compounded Words, each fimple Word must retain its own Letters.

When you are to write any hard long Word, mark how many founds or Syllables it hath, as if you were to write difainfullness, univerfalirie, or the like, before you write it; fay thus to your felt; dif dain full neft, wini ver-fa-Bitie, and you Mall hardly mills in the writing But to this Rule there are four Exceptions.

Lecont Wards course in of the Flind Number, and Verbs of the third perfou Singular , IL Vhi & AHD rticle is for the most part fivallowed and in the former Syllable; Offe Sentences and fuch Diffinctions , and Points as wheltode used in striting. scept Word swithing acidewrests of

fuch Simple Words, as are fignificant apart Sementer is a number of Words, Joy hed together in perfect Senfe. (219)

The Stops or Points to be observed in Senten-

ces, are of two forts, Primary, and Secundary.
The Primary Points are thefe Hight good of W.

ad.

un-

as,

be

Je.

ts,

ng

he

de-

157 . A Comma , made with a little froke ting of two Vowels, which otherw(1) names 1. 2. A Calor , made with two points thus (19) (.. 3) A Semi colon, made with a point, and a little stroke under it thus (;) -united Pentat, made wishood (lingle point ation, made thus (-) and is to be u(cd) with and Anterosefis or Interrogation, made in this and the other part beginneth the next) renation 28 6. And Ecohonefts, or nove of Admiration, whole note as a perpendicular right tine, with love of onestelf. a point under it thus (!) nwy DA Pule melopis, as a more the rewo half Moons, inclosing a Stricette provincia imay the pried of omitted shind yet the fense remains in which is to be pronounced long. () sunt; with -281 A Panishigisjis ainote, which dothine hide a Word which is opposed polanother Word; and is made with two Samiqued are, thus [] 100 hand, and the other towards the left, and is ai The Bekonding Points are thefe Six. 101 od or e in Annapostrophes which is winote; Tet on the top or fide of a Letter whereby the Syllables are contracted into one, and is made tike a Comma, thus () as a for it is. 10 11100

2. An Eclipfic which is a note cutting of one or more Words in the Beginning or ending of a Verle or Sentence, cited in our Writing, and is made with a long stroke thus ____as

Who sleep themselves, and trust their servants Eyes.

ting of two Vowels, which is a note for the parting of two Vowels, which otherwise might seem to make a Diphthong, and is made with two pricks over the two Vowells, thus, (...) as in Lais.

ation, made thus (-) and is to be used when one part of a word conclude the former line, and the other part beginneth the next; or else, when two words are, by way of Elegancy, as it were joyned into one; as felf love, for the love of ones self.

Ropewise towards the lest hand, thus, (') and is to be set over that Syllable in a Word,

which is to be pronounced long.

ther of two oblique stroaks into one figure, one of them being made towards the right hand, and the other towards the lest, and is to be set over a Vowel, thus, (2) which is to be pronounced long, as in bite, will, stile, out in bit, will, still.

so The Accent in Words of many Syllables is commonly placed on the third Vowel from the

last; as in toleration, industry

But Words ending in (ary) have the accent on the first Syllable; as temporary; Words that have many Conforants in the last Syllable save one, have their accent on that Syllable, as in eternal: eternal; Words ending in ire and ure, have their accent in that Syllable; as in ire.

A Now hath its accent in the first, a Verb in

the last Syllable; as absent; to absent.

es.

r-

h

)

1-

n

S

So Humane, when it comes before a Substantive, as humant-learning; but in the last Syllable, when it comes after a Substantive, as Christ had two natures, the one divine, the other humane.

C 3

THE

Cips English Sendeng. 21

drived; Words ending in the and are, have
their accent in that Syllaple; as more:

A Planthach its are in-the first a Part in
the are allable; as defent, to able.

I words, when it comes before a Subflantion of material and it the last Syllable, the it comes after a Subflantion, as Christ
had two interest to one diame. the other

THE

企业的企业的企业的

THE ENGLISH

wire of the Motes, by which all Numbers

ACADEMY.

The SECOND PART.

OF ARITHMETICK

CHAP. I.

Of Single Arithmetick in whole Numbers.

A Rithmetick is the art of accompting by Numbers; it is either politive of negative.

2. Positive Arithmetick, is that which is wrought by certain and infallible Numbers at first propounded; and this is either ful ple or comparative.

considered alone, without relation to one and ther, and this either in whole Numbers, or in Fractions.

4. The parts of single Arithmetick, are two,

Notation and Mumeration.

the value of the Notes, by which all Numbers are expressed; the second sheweth how to read the Numbers which are expressed by those Notes.

6. The Notes of Characters, by which all Numbers are usually expressed are these, 1. one, 2. two, 3. three, 4. four, 5. sive, 6. six, 7. seven, 8. eight, 9. nine, 0. nothing.

7. These Notes are either significant Figures,

or a Cypher.

8. The fignificant Figures, are the first nine, viz. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9. The first whereof is more particularly termed an unite or unitie, the rest are said to be composed of unities; so 2, is composed of two unites; 3, of three unites, 8cc. 11

of it felf, yet being fet before or after any of the rest, increaseth or decreaseth their value,

as shall be further shewed hereafter.

10. The second part of Notation, is the reading of the Number expressed by these Notes; and this is done by distinguishing the Number

given into Degrees and Periods.

it. The Degrees are three, the first is that first place of a Number towards the right hand, and is the place of Unity. The second is the second figure towards the right hand, and this is the place of Tens. The third is the third Figure towards the right hand, and is the place

place of Hundreds; so this Character 9, doth fignisie Nine; these Notes 27, Twenty seven;

and these 235, Two hundred thirty five.

,

h

rs

le

11

,

١,

.

f

0

e

3

12. A Period, is when a number confifting of more Notes than three, hath each three Notes thereof (beginning at the right hand) diftinguished by Points or Commas: The several parts of the Numbers fo diftinguished, are called Periods; fo the Number 38156240, being diftinguished into Periods, will ftand thus, 38.156.249. of which the first Period is read thus, Two hundred forty nine; the first Figure in the second Period is the place of Thousands, the second Tens of Thousands. and the third Hundreds of Thousands. In the third Period, the Figure is in the place of Millions, the fecond Tens of Millions, and for this Number is thus to be read. Thirty Eight Millions, One Hundred Fifty Six Thousand, Two Hundred Forty Nine.

13. Numeration, is that which by certain known Numbers propounded, doth discover

another Number unknown.

14. Numeration hath four Species; Addition,

Subtraction, Multiplication, and Division.

15. Addition, is that by which divers Numbers are added together, to the end that the Sum or Total may be discovered. For which purpose, having placed the Numbers as in the sollowing Example, begin with those in the Unity place first, then with these in the place of Tens, then of Hundreds, and so forward, according as the Numbers given do con-

6R

26. The English Academy.

fift of places, carrying the Tens, if there be any, to the place of the next greater rank, as here you see.

472961 341608 74325	3814527
341608	4567890
74325	6549238
6739	816365
895633	15748020

ber is taken out of another, so that the Residue or remainder may be known. To perform this, you must rank your Numbers, and begin as in Addition; and in case any of the Figures of the Number to be Subtracted shall be greater than that, from whence the Subtraction is to be made, you must borrow one from the next place above it; as in the Examples following.

895633	6549238
341695	3814527
553938	2734711

17. Multiplication, is that by which we Multiply two Numbers, the one by the other, to the end, that their Product may be discovered.

18. Multiplication hath three Parts, the Multiplicand, the Multiplicator, and the Product.

19. Multiplication, is Single or Compound.

20. Single Multiplication, is when the Multiplicand,

tiplicand, and Multiplicator, do each of them consist of one only Figure; as if 9 were given to be Multiplied by 6, 9 is the Multiplicand, 6 is the Multiplicator, and 54 is the Product.

21. Compound Multiplication, is when the Multiplicator and Multiplicand do either, or

both confift of more Figures than one.

be,

25

in:

199

21

100

1180

lis

m-G-

rm

in

es

13

be

Xt

11

1-

Q

5

6

1

22. When the Product of any of the particular Figures shall exceed ten, place the Excels under the Line, and for every ten that it fo exceeds, keep in mind one to be added to the next rank: Example; 76147, being to be Multiplyed by 5, the Product of the state is 180735, and 39634 being gi- 39634 ven to be Multiplyed by 47, the work will stand as in the Margin, where the Product by 7 277438 is 277438, and the Product -158536 thereof by 4, is 158536, and the Sum of these two Products 1862798 is 1862798.

23. Division is that by which we discover how often one Number is contained in another,

that we may find out the Quotient.

24. Division hath three Parts, the Dividend, the Divisor, and the Quotient; thus, if 35 were given to be Divided by 5, 35 is the Dividend, 5 the Divisor, and 7 will be found to be the Quotient.

25. In Division, make a crooked line at each end of your Dividend, that on the left hand ferving for your Divisor, and that on the right

for the Quotient; then fee how oft your Divis for is contained in the first Figure or Figures of your Dividend, and put the answer in the Que tient, then Multiply your Divisor by the Fi gure in the Quotient, and the Product Sub-tract from your Dividend, then draw down the next Figure of your Dividend, and as how oft your Divisor may be found in the remainer fo increased, and the answer put in the Quotient, and proved as before, till there be no Figures left in your Dividend, and fo of as the Question is repeated, so many place must be in the Quotient, as is manifest by the following Example:

I	047) 1862798 (39634
2	094	141
3	141	452
4	188	423
5	235 282	297
		282
8	329 376	159
	423	141
		188
1		6 /

Let 1862798, be given to be divided by 47, I ask how often 47 may be had in 186? the Answer is 3, which I place in the Quotient, then I Multiply 47 by 3, the Product is 141, which being Subtracted from 186, the RemaiThe English Icabemy.

ivi

16

uo-

 $\mathbf{F}_{\mathbf{L}}^{0}$

ab

IW

ask

re

the

be

oft

ICE

the

7, he

it,

I,

ai-

er

ner is 45, to which draw down 2 the next Figure in the Dividend, and then it will be 452, now then I ask how often 47 may be had in 452? the which by the Table made by the continual Addition of 47 unto it felf, is 9 lines, therefore I place 9 in the Quotient, and the Product of 47 is 423, which being Subtracted from 452, the Remainer is 29, to which I draw 7 the next Figure, and then proceed as before,

and so at last I find the Quotient to be 39634.

26. Multiplication and Division, prove one another, for if you Multiply the Quotient by the Divisor, the Product will be equal to the Dividend: so 39634, being Multiplied by 47, the Product is 1862798, and this Product being Divided by 47, the Quotient is 39634.

Number of equal and Moration is withhow there are nearly been affed; as if a Vand were Deviced into low parts, and its were defined, that a hould for down three of theleparts

then administration, dean a line, and feeling the Norther of payes into vanch the lateger is flared of to be Divided, under the line, and the a maker of page you would expect the parts, I write a line a court of the bore in

odie was nie ob nev sa. or bas ;

number prepayable: Where note, that the noterabor above the fine is called the Properties and a sed the number under the long and Denomi-

A Fraction in elicer Proper of Jacobser.
 A Proper D. Commission of the subsection of the property of the commission of the property of the commission of the property of the property of the commission of the property of the commission of t

C Divigit 4 A Hon it will be 452,

of Simple Arithmetick in Practions.

Single Arithmerick in whole Numbers, hath been shewed in the last Chapter; Single Arithmetick in Fractions now followeth.

2. A Fraction is a part of an Integer.

3. Single Arabmetick in Fractions, doth all fo confift of two Parts, Notation, and Num.

- 4 Nongion of Fractions, is that which meweth flow the Fraction part of any Integer ger on one whole thing being Divided into any Number of equal parts, Notation sheweth how these partsmay be expressed; as if a Yard were Divided into four parts, and it were defired, that I should fet down three of these parts; the usual manner is thus, draw a line, and fet the Number of parts into which the Integer is supposed to be Divided, under the line, and the number of parts you would express fet above the line, thus to express three or four parts, I write 4 under a line, and 3 above it, thus, 1/4; and so may you do with any other number propounded: Where note, that the number above the line is called the Numerator, and the number under the line the Denominator.
 - 5. A Fraction is either Proper or Improper.

6. A Proper Fraction is that whose Numera-

t

P

0

1

400

1

1

tor is less than the Denominator, such as are thefe 2 12 109.

7. A Proper Fraction is either fingle of com-

pound?

TUP.

201

書き

the

2 -34c

事不在五

WO

re d,

S;

let

15 nd et

115 t, er ne r,

ů-

1-

r

8. A Single Fraction is that which confits of one Numerator and one Denominator, fuch as

o. A Compound Fraction (bellet wife called a Praction of a Praction) is that which hath more Minerators and more Denominators than one which kind of Fractions are difcoverable by this word (of) which is interpoled between their parts; as, 3 of 1 is a Fraction of a Fraction or a Compound Fraction, and expressen two thirds of three fourths of an integer.

10. The things expressed by proben Numhers or Fractions, are principally the Parts or Fractions of Money, Weight, Meature, Time,

and things accounted by the Dozen.

11. The least part or Fraction of Money uled in Englandica Farthing; and four Far-

things makes a Peny; twelve Pence, a Shilling; and twenty Shillings, one Pound Sterling.

12. The least Fraction of Weight used in England, is a Grain; that is, the Weight of a Grain of Wheat, well dryed and gathered out of the middle of the Ear, whereof 32 make a Peny Weight, and twenty Peny Weight an Ounce Troy, and welve Ounces a Pound; but deny Weight being thus afcertained, it is now subdivided into twenty four Grains.

13. The Weights used by Apothecaries are derived from a Pound Troy, which is subdivi-15 A

ded in this manner.

11

4

1 A Pound Troy, is -	12 Ounces,
3 An Ounce, is	
3 A Dram, is	3 Scruples.
3 A Scruple, is	20 Grains.

14. Belides Troy Weight, there is another kind of Weight used in England, called Aver dupois Weight, a Pound whereof is equal to fourteen Ounces, twelve peny Weight Troy the which is subdivided into 16 Ounces, each Ounce into 16 Drams, and each Dram into 4 Quarters. Of this Weight 112 makes 1 Hundred.

15. The Measures used in England are of

Capacity or Length.

16. The Measures of Capacity are liquid or dry; Liquid Measures are according to this Table. ounied by the Do

One pound of When	at 2.05- Dia 7.11
Troy Weight -	things water Done
Two Pints	One Quart.
Two Quarts	One pottle.
Two Pottles	One Gallon.
Eight Gallons	One Firkin of Ale,
Nine Gallons	One Firkin of Bear.
Two Firkins	One Kilderkin.
Two Kilderkins	One Barrel.
Forty two Gallons	One Tearce of wine
Sixty three Gallons	One Hogshead.
Two Hogheads	One Pipe or Butt.
Two Pipes	One Tun.
The state of the s	17

9.11

(1111

1 F

FEF

F

T

T

Si

Fo

The and each Onarter

7

9

ď

9:

10

16

10

Ľ.

C

7.

17. Dry Measures are those in which all kind of dry substances are Meted; as Grain, Seacoal, Salt, and the like; their Table is this that followeth:

One Pint Cone Pint. One Quart. Two Pints One Pottle. Two Quarts One Gallon.
One Peck.

I Bulkel land meafure. Two Pottles Two Gallons Four Pecks I Bushel water measure. Five Pecks One Quarter. Eight Bushels Four Quarters One Chaldron. Five Quarters J One Wey.

18. Long Measures are expressed in the Table following.

Three Barley-Corns One Inch. in length Twelve Inches One Foot. Three Foot One Yard. Three Foot o Inches > one Ell. One Fathom. Six Foot Five yards and an half One pole or pearch. Forty Poles One Furlong. One English Mile. Eight Furlongs

Note that a Yard, as also an Ell is usually subdivided 3.4 The English Academy.

divided into Four Quarters, and each Quarter into four Nails.

10. A Table of Time is this that followeth.

Sixty Minutes
Twenty four Hours
Seven Dayes
Four Weeks
Fifty two Weeks, One Day, and Six Hours, make One Year.

And these Fractions of Money, Weight, Measure, &c. are usually written under their several Denominations, instead of having their Denominators written under them thus;

lib. shill. pence. farth.
23. 19. 08. 3.

And as their Notation is two fold, so is their Numeration also; First, then I will shew you the Numeration of parts when written, as Integers, and then as vulgar Fractions.

20. Numeration of parts when written, a

Integers, is Accidental or Effential.

21. Accidental Numeration, otherwise called Reduction, is either Descending or Ascer-

ding.

22. Reduction Descending, is when a Number of greater Denomination being given, it is required, to find how many of a lesser Denomination, are equal in value to that given Number

Number of the greater. And this is perfor med by Multiplication; as if it were required to Reduce 329 Shillings into Pence, if you Multiply 329 by 20, the number of Shillin gs in a Pound, the Product will be 6580 Shillings, and 6580 shillings being Multiplied by 12, the number of Pence in a Shilling, the Product will be 78960 Pence.

23. Reduction Ascending, is when a Number of a leffer Denomination being given, it is required, to find how many of a greater Denomination, are equal to that given Number of the leffer; And this is done, by Division so if it were required to find how many Pounds these were in 78060 Pence; if 78060 Pence be Divided by 12, the Number of Pencering Shilling, the Quotient will be 6580 Shillings and if 6,80 Shillings be Divided by 29, the Number of Shillings in a Pound, the Quopient will be 329 Pounds, and fo for any other.

24. Esfential Numeration, doth confift of four Species, Addition, Subtraction, Mul-

tiplication, and Division.

bawarin read vistal

CS

rs,

nt,

eir

eu

eir

/OU

In-

cal

err

ım-

it

no-

ren

ber

yd

04

25. In Addition of Numbers of Several Denominations, you must begin with the least first, and when the fum of any of the Denominations amounts to an Integer, add it to the next Denomination that is greater.

Denominations, you muit firft redu e the

Numbers given to their left Denounnations D 2 sylgisla Example. in whole Mumbers, the Fredner Divided

the Sacare of the correction

confife

141

Example.

113:00:02:3	69:08:10
44: 19:07:3	18:15:07
27:09:11:1	17:16:08
16:15:09:2	16:17:09
23:14:10:1	15: 18: 10

26. In Subtraction of Numbers of several Denominations, when any of the parts of the greater Number are less than the parts of the lesser Number subscribed, Deduct the parts of the lesser Number from the parts of the greater, increased with an Integer, of the next superiour Denomination, and keeping one in mind, add to the next place of the Number given to be Subtracted.

Example.

44	: 13:07:1	Mr.		90	
25	: 19 : 11 : 3	10	1117500	14 1 3 1	11
-	: 13 : 07 : 2	0			08

27. In Multiplication of Numbers of several Denominations, you must first reduce the Numbers given to their last Denominations and then Multiply them as hath been shewed in whole Numbers, the Product Divided by the Square of the parts of an Integer, reduced

The English Academy.

37 to the last Denomination, shall in the Quotient give the Product required.

Example.

Let the Product of 171. 191. 6d. by gl. 13 s. 6d. be required. 171. 19s. 6d. being reduced to make 4314 Pence. 51. 13s. 6d. reduced do make 1362 Pence.

> The Multiplicand. 4314 The Multiplicator. 1362

ral he

he

of

T,

i d,

to

ne

ns

d

to

The Product. 5875668

The Number of Pence in a Pound are 240, and the Square thereof is 57600, by which Dividing 5875668 the Quotient; 102 lib. 00 shill. 01 peny. 3 farthings, and \$600 is the Quotient fought.

28. In Division of Numbers of several Denominations, first reduce your Divisor to its Number of parts in the least Denomination, then Multiply your Dividend, by the Square of the parts in an Integer reduced to the leaft Denomination; and if there be any parts annexed, to the Integers of the Dividend, they must be reduced to the highest Fraction, that

the Square of the parts in an Integer reduced to its least Denomination will bear, and added to the former Product, the whole being divided by your Divisor reduced, will give you the Quotient sought.

Example.

Let 102:00:01:3 \(\frac{46.8}{176.0} \) be given to be Divided by 5:13:6. First I reduce the Divisor given to its Number of parts in the last Denomination, and it makes 1362 Pence, then I Multiply 102 the Integral part of my Dividend, by 57600, the square of Pence in a Pound, the Product is 58752, and the Fraction of my Dividend 00:01:3 \(\frac{46.8}{57.60.0} \) being reduced, is \(\frac{7}{76.00.0} \), which being added to the former Product 58752, the Sum is 5875668, for the Dividend; which being divided by 1362, the Quotient is 4314 pence, that is 17 lib. 19 shill. 6 pence.

29. Numeration of Fractions, when written with their Numerators and Denominators, is

also Accidental and Essential.

30. Accidental Numeration, otherwise cal-

led Reduction, is three-fold.

1. To Reduce one Fraction which is not already in its least terms, to a lesser Denomination.

Todo this, divide the Numerator and Denominator by their greatest common measure, the two Quotients shall be one of them, a new Numerator, and the other a new Denominator of a Fraction equal to the Fraction given, and in its leaft terms.

ced

led

di-

on

be

Di-

aft

e,

ny

rang

he

by

en

1.

1

2-

e.

W

Example 117 being given to be Reduced, the greatest common measure is 13, by which Dividing 91, the Quotient is 7, for a new Numerator, and Dividing 117 by 13, the Quotient is 9 for a new Denominator, and so 117 is reduced to 2.

The greatest common measure between two Numbers is found thus; Divide the greater Number by the less, and your Divisor by the Remainer, if there be any, your last Divisor is the common measure sought, as in the following Example.

2. To Reduce many Fractions of divers Denominations into one Denomination.

To do this, Multiply each Numerator by all the Denominators except its own, the Products shall be the new Numerators, then Multiply all the Denominators together, and the Product shall be the common Denominator sought.

D 4

Ex-

Example. \$ \$ 5 will be reduced to 181

3. To Reduce any Fraction from one Denomination, to any other Denomination defired. And to do this Multiply the Numerator given, by the Denominator required, and Divide the Product by the Denominator given, the Quotient shall be the Numerator defired.

Example, let it be defired to Reduce 20 to a Fraction, whose Denominator shall be 100, first Multiply 17 by 100, the Product is 1700, which being Divided by 20, the Quotient is

85, for the new Numerator defired.

31. Essential Numeration of Fractions hath four Species, Addition, Subduction, Multi-

plication and Division.

32. In Addition of Fractions, the Fractions given must be first Reduced to one Denomination, and then add the Numerators together, so have you the Sum of the Fractions, so \(\frac{1}{2}\) and \(\frac{1}{2}\) make \(\frac{1}{2}\).

Denomination, Deduct the less from the greater, their difference is the remainer, so a taken

from 3 reft \$.

34. Multiplication of Fractions, is thus, Multiply all the Numerators together, so is their Product a new Numerator, then Multiply all the Denominators together, and their Product is a new Denominator.

Thus if 73 and & were to be Multiplied, the

Product will be 13.

35. Division of Fractions is thus, Multiply

48

the Numerator of the Dividend by the Denominator of the Divisor, the Product shall be a new Numerator; also Multiply the Numerator of the Divisor, by the Denominator of the Dividend, so shall the Product be a new Denominator, and this new Fraction is the Quotient sought; so if \$\frac{4}{5}\$ were to be Divided by \$\frac{1}{5}\$, the Product will be \$\frac{1}{27}\$.

36. When the Denominator of a Fraction is an Unite with Cyphers, the Fraction is more particularly called a Decimal; and such Fractions may be expressed without their Denominators as well as with them, thus, 10 may be

written thus, q.

De-

罗夏华舟

ed.

to

0,

0,

is

ath

lti-

ons

12-

r,

nd

ne

2-

en

s,

j-

ir

e

37. When the Numerator doth not confift of fo many Places, as the Denominator hath Cyphers, fill up the void places of the Numerator with Cyphers, fo, 100, 100, 100, are written thus, .05, and .025.

38. Numeration of Decimal Fractions, is likewife two fold, Accidental and Effential.

39. Accidental Numeration, otherwise called Reduction, is performed, by the third way of Reduction, shewed in the Twenty seventh Rule of this Chapter.

40. Effential Numeration, hath in it the four usual Species, Addition, Subtraction, Mul-

tiplication, and Division.

41. Addition of Decimals is the same with Addition of whole Numbers, if a point or line be set between the Integers and the Parts, as in the following Examples.

2 Che English Meademy.

2.007419	23.05678
.74258 .96314	16,14365
3.71313	71.96151

42. Subduction of Decimals doth differ from Subduction in whole Numbers, but by a point to distinguish the whole Number from the broken; as in the Example following.

25.07496	36.01436
17.89637	17.83589
7.17859	18.17847

43. Multiplication of Decimal Fractions, is the same with Multiplication in whole Numbers, but when the work is finished, to distinguish the Integers from the Decimals, do thus; so many places of parts as are in both the numbers given, being separated by a point, the rest of the Figures towards the less thand are Integers, and those towards the right are Decimal parts; as in these Examples.

7.08	17.37 3.72
9960	3474 12159
88.1460	5211
	64.6164

The English Icademy.

44. Division of Decimal Fractions is the same with Division in whole numbers, but when the Work is finished, to distinguish the Fractional part from the Integers, observe this general Rule.

The first Figure in your Quotient will be alwayes of the same degree or place with that Figure or Cypher in your Dividend, which standeth over the Unites place in your Divisor.

n

For Example: 78925, being given to be divided by 32, the Quotient will be 2466, and because the place of Unites in the Divisor, doth stand under the place of seconds in the Dividend, therefore the first Figure in the Quotient, will be in the place of seconds, and the sirst must be supplied with a Cypher, and then the Quotient will be 0.02466.

CHAP.

CHAP. III.

Of Comparative Arithmetick.

Hus much hath been faid concerning Single Arithmetick, Comparative follows, which is wrought by Numbers, as they are confidered to have relation to one another.

2. This Relation confifts either in Quantity

or in Quality.

3. Relation in Quantity is the reference that the Numbers themselves have one to another; as when the Comparison is made between 8 and 2, or 2 and 8; 7 and 3, or 3 and 7.

And here the Numbers propounded are alwayes two, whereof the first is called the Antecedent, the other the Consequent.

4. Relation in Quantity, consists either in the difference, or in the rate or reason found between the Numbers propounded; the one is found by Subtracting the less from the greater; so 6 is the difference between 8 and 2; but the other, to wit, the rate or reason, is found by Dividing the greater by the less, and thus the rate between 8 and 2 is four-fold, because 2 is found four times in 8; Or the rate may be also found by Dividing the less by the greater, or setting the Numbers given in manner of a

5. This rate or reason of Numbers is either Equal or unequal; Equal reason, is the relation

Fraction, and thus the rate between 2 and 8

is 4 alfo, or & that is 1.

that

1

ź

I

b

h

6

n

t

7

C

a

D

f

that Equal Numbers have one to another, as 5 to 5, 6 to 6. Unequal Reason is the relation that Unequal Numbers have one to another, and this is either of the greater to the less, or of the less unto the greater.

In the one the greater Number is the Antecedent, and the less the Consequent; and in the other the lesser Number is the Antecedent,

and the greater is the Confequent.

6. Relation in Quality, (otherwise called Proportion) is the reference or respect that the reasons of Numbers have one to another, and therefore the numbers must be more than two, or else there cannot be the comparing of reasons in the Plural Number.

7. Proportion is two fold, Arithmetical

and Geometrical.

De

re

ty

at

as

١,

L

10

in

d

is

ne ny

e

is

6

10

8

r

n

8. Arithmetical proportion, is when Numbers differ according to equal reason; that is, have equal differences; as, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, or 3, 6, 9, 12, in the first rank the common difference is 2, and in the second 3.

o. Arithmetical proportion, is either con-

tinued, or interrupted.

10. Arithmetical proportion continued, is when divers numbers are linked together by a continued Progression of equal difference: and in such a Progression, the sum of the sirst and last Terms being Multiplied by half the number of the Terms, the Product will be the sum of all the Terms; as in this Progression, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, the sum of the sirst and last is 13, which being Multiplied

plied by 6, half the number of the Terms, the Product is 78, the fum of all the terms in

that Progression.

tical proportion, the Mean number being doubled is equal to the sum of the Extreams; so 3, 6, 9, being given, the double of 6, the mean number is equal to the sum of 3 and 9, the two Extreams.

is when the Progression is discontinued, as in

thefe numbers, 2, 4, 8, 10.

or discontinued, the sum of the Means is equal to the sum of the Extreams, as in 3, 6, 9, 12, being given, the sum of 6 and 9 is equal to the sum of 3 and 12, or 3, 6, 12, 15, being given, the sum of 6 and 12, is equal to the sum of 3 and 15.

14. Geometrical Proportion is, when dryers numbers differ by the like reason; as, 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, which differ one from another by double reason; for as 1 is the half of 2, so 2 is

the half of 4, 4 of 8, 8 of 16.

15. Geometrical proportion is either continued or interrupted, Geometrical proportion continued, is when divers numbers are linked together, by a continued Progression of the like reason; as, 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, or 3, 6, 12, 24, 48.

16. In Numbers Geometrically proportional, If you Multiply the last Term by the common rate by which they differ, and from the Pro-

dua

duct Deduct the first Term, and Divide the Remainer by the former rate less by an Unite, the Quotient shall be the sum of all the Progressions; So 2, 6, 18, 54, 162, 486, 1458, being propounded the last Term 1460, being multiplied by 3 the rate, the Product is 4374 out of which deducting 2 the sirst Term, the Remainer is 4372, which being Divided by 2 the rate less one, the Quotient 2186 is the sum of that Progression.

17. Three Proportionals being given, the Square of the Mean is equal to the Product of the Extreams; so 4, 8, 16, being given, the

Square of 8 is equal to four times 16.

M

e

150

he

9,

1,

in

cd

12

he

gi-

di

1,

by

K

itiion ied

ial,

18. Geometrical Proportion interrupted, is when the Progression of like reason is discontinued; as, 2, 4, 16, 32, where the Term between 4 and 16 is wanting, and therefore the rate between 4 and 16 is not the same that is between 2 and 4, or 16 and 32.

19. Four Proportional Numbers whatfoever being given, the Product of the two Means is equal to the Product of the two Extreams; so 2, 4, 16, 32, being propounded, 4 times 16 is

in the set place, we will provide in

equal to 2 times 32, which is 64.

and with a mountain or Charles and the

ous simil on CHAP. TV. all the Prostrelli.

Of the Rule of Proportion, or Rule of Three.

Rom the last Rule of the former Chapter ariseth that precious Gem in Arithmetick, the Rule of three, which for its excellency, deserves the name that is given to it, The Golden Rule.

2. The Golden Rule, is that by which certain numbers being given, another number Geometrically proportional to them may be found out.

3. The Golden Rule is either Single or Com-

pound.

4. The Single Rule, is when three terms or numbers are propounded, and a fourth in pro-

portion to them is defired.

of two Denominations; two of the Terms propounded have one Denomination, the third propounded and fourth required, have another.

ti

A

6. Of those two numbers given which are of one Denomination, that which moves the Queftion must possess the third place, the other number of the same Denomination, must be put in in the first place, and consequently, the other di known Term, which is of the same Denomination with the fourth required, must possess the fecond place.

7. The three Terms propounded being thus placed,

And

placed, consider whether your third doth require more or less; if it requires more, Multiply the middle number by the greater of the two Extreams, and Divide the Product by the leser, the Quotient is the fourth Number or Term desired.

Ÿ.

er i,

be

m

0

II.

10

0-

ift ms

rd

T.

of e-

er ut

er

12-

he

us

But if the third Term in the Question require less, Multiply the middle Term by the lesser of the two Extreams, and the Product Divide by the greater, the Quotient shall be the fourth Term desired; An Example in each Case will sufficiently explain the Rule.

If 7 Pound of Sugar cost 2 s. 7 d. What shall 28 Pound of Sugar cost ? The Termsmest hand thus,

the fugar. s. d. of the fugar. or of the divers Rule 88 plus 17 page 17

Where it is plain, that 28 pound of Sugar must needs cost more than 7, therefore I Multiply 21. 7 d. or 31 pence; by 28, the Product 868 being Divided by 7 and the Quotient is 124 d. or 105. 4 d.

2. Example: If 7 Men will digg a Garden in 31 Dayes; In how many Dayes will 28 Men digg the same Garden? Here the Terms must hand thus,

Men. Dayes. Men. 7 31 28

the English Academy

And by the state of the Question it plainly appears, that the third Term requireth less; therefore I Multiply 31, the middle Term, by 7, the lesser Extream, and the Product 217 being Divided by 28, the Quotient 7 18 is the fourth Term desired.

the third Term in the Cuckion it.

the two Extreams, and the Product by the greater, the Quotient shalf he of Terms Vire 9 AH Example in c. 1.

of the Compound Rule of Three.

Pound of the Compound Rule of Three.

The Compound Rule of Three, is when more than three Terms are propounded.

2. Under the Compound Rule of Three is comprehended the Double Rule of Three, and divers Rules of plural proportion.

3. The Double Rule of Three, is when five Terms are propounded, and a fixth in proportion to them is required.

1. In this Rule the five Terms given do confift of two parts; first a Supposition, and then a Demonstration; the Supposition is expressed by three of the Terms propounded, and the demand by the other two.

cing of the Terms; for which observe amongst the Terms of Supposition, which of them hath the same Denomination with the Term required, reserve that for the second place, and

write

tl

R

th

th

th

write the other two Terms in the Supposition one above another in the first place; and lastly; the Terms of Demand one above another, likewise in the third place, in such fort, that the uppermost may have the same Denomination with the uppermost of those in the first place.

Example.

If 6 Clerks can write 45 sheets of Paper in 5 Dayes; How many Clerks can write 300 sheets in 72 Dayes? Here the Question is concerning the number of Clerks, the 6 Clerks must therefore possess the second place, and the Dayes and Paper in the Supposition must be set in the first, one over the other, of which, if Paper be the uppermost in the other Terms, the Paper must be set over the Dayes in the third place, and then the Number in the Question will stand thus,

5

d

n

1

n

b:

ne

2-

ft

th ii-

nd

te

6. The Terms propounded being thus placed, the Question may be resolved by two Single Rules of Three, in this manner.

1. As the uppermost Term of the first place is to the middle, so is the uppermost Term in

the last place to a fourth Number.

2. As the lower Term of the first place is to that fourth Number, so is the lower Term of the last place to the Term required.

But in both these Proportions, considera-E 2 tien tion must be had to the Term required, namely, whether it must be more or less than the

middle Term given.

In our present Question, the fourth Term in the first Proportion must be greater than the second; for it is plain, that more work will require more men; therefore I say,

as 45 . 6 :: 300 . 40 Clerks.

But in the second Proportion, it is likewise plain, that the more Time is given, the sewer Persons are required; and therefore in this Proportion, 5. 40. 13. I multiply the middle Term by the first, and the Product 200 I divide by 13, the last, and the Quotient is 15 13.

2. Example: If 100 l. gain 6 l. in 12 months, What shall 276 l. gain in 18 months? In this Question the Terms must be thus placed.

1. 100 . 6 :: 276 . 16 . 56.

2. 12 . 16 . 56 :: 18 . 24 . 84.

CHAP.

di

m

of

va

fti

Sul

me

wh

fev

bei par

Do

Stor this Adv

upo for this foly

CHAP. VI.

Of the Rule of Fellowship.

The Rules of Plural proportion are those, by which we Resolve Questions that are discoverable by more Rules of Three than one, and cannot be performed by the Double Rule of Three mentioned in the last Chapter.

Of these Rules there are divers kinds and varieties, according to the nature of the Question propounded; I will only mention one, and refer the rest to my larger Treatise of this

Subject.

2. The Rule of Plural proportion that I mean to mention, is the Rule of Fellowship.

3. And the Rule of Fellowship is that by which in Accompts amongst divers Men, (their several Stocks together) the whole Loss or Gain being propounded, the Loss or Gain of each particular Man may be discovered.

4. The Rule of Fellowship is either Single or

Double.

5. The Single Rule of Fellowship is, when the Stocks propounded are Single numbers; As in this Example: A and B were Partners in an Adventure to Sea, A put in 25 l. B 56, and upon return of the Ship, they sold the Fraight sol. profit; the Question is, What part of this 50 l. is due to A, and what to B? To resolve this and the like Questions, the Sum of

E 3

54 The English Academy.

the Stocks must be the first Term in the Rule of Three, the whole gain the second, and each particular Stock the third; this done, repeating the Rule of Three, as often as there are particular Stocks in the Question, the fourth Term produced by these several operations are the respective Gains or Losses of those particular Stocks propounded; so in the present Question, the Resolution will be as here you see.

the Stocks propounded are double numbers, that is, when each Stock hath relation to a particular line. A, B, and C, hire a piece of Ground for 45 l. per Annum, in which A had 24 Oxen 32 Daies, B 12, for 48 Daies, C 16, for 24 Daies; now the Question to be resolved is, What part of the Rent each person must pay.

For this purpose you must first Multiply each particular Stock by its respective Time, and take the Total of their Products for the first Term, the Gain or Loss for the second, and every mans particular Stock and Time for the third; this done, repeating the Rule of Three so often as there are Products of the double Numbers; the sourth Terms produced upon those several operations are the numbers sought. So then in the Question propounded, the Product of 24 and 32 is 768; the Product of

12 and 48 is 576, and the Product of 16 and 24 is 384, the Sum of these Products is 1728, which is the first Term, 45 1. the Rent is the second, and each particular Product the third;

ule

nd

re-

ere

the

raofe ent

rs,

16, red

ay.

ach

inft

ind

the

ree

ble

on

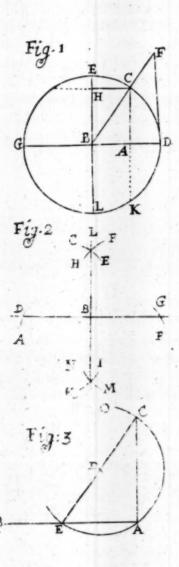
ht.

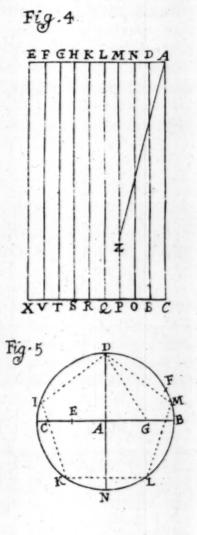
ro
of

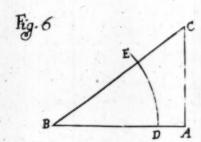
12

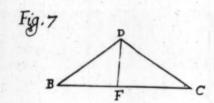
By which three Operations the Question is Resolved.

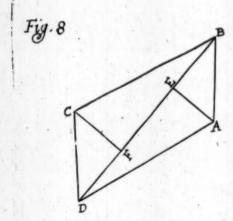
FINIS.

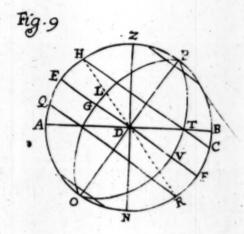


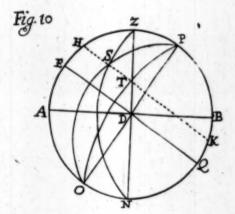




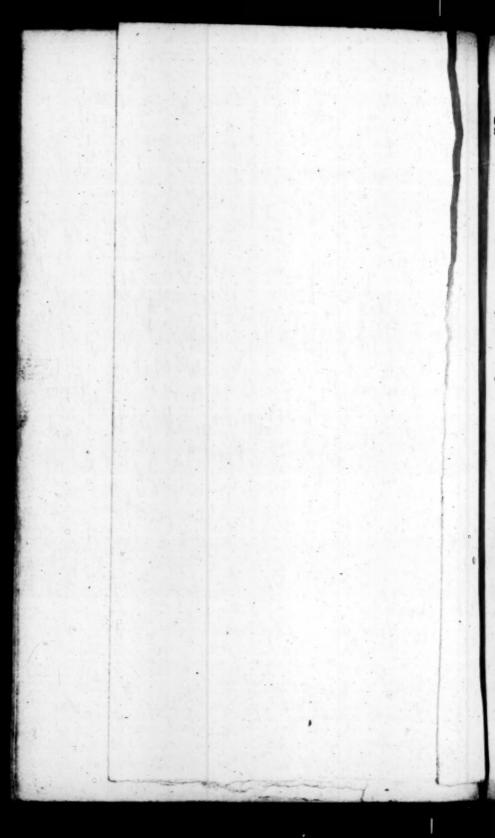








Ŧ



A CONTROL OF CONTROL O

AND CHARLESTER

THE ENGLISH

ACADEMY:

The THIRD PART.

OF GEOMETRY.

CHAP. I.

Of the Definition and Division of Geometry.

FOMETRY is the Art of Measuring well.

2. The Subject of Geometry is Mag-

nitude, or continued Quantity, whole parts are joyned together by a common Term or limit.

3. Magnitude is either a Line, or fomething made of a Line or Lines.

4. A Line is a Magnitude, confishing only of Length, without either Breadth or Thickness, the Term or limit whereof is a Point.

5. A

s. A Point is an indivisible Sign in Magnitude. A Point therefore is no quantity, but the beginning of all continued quantities, which are divisible in power infinitely.

6. A Line is either confidered Simply by it felf, or elfe comparatively with another Line.

7. A Line confidered simply of it felf, is

either Right or Oblique.

8. A Right line, is that which lyeth equally between his Points.

o. An Oblique line, is either circular or

mixt.

10. A Periphery, or Circular Line, is that which is equally distant from the middle of the comprehended space, which middle is called the Centre, and the distance between that Centre and the Circumference, is called the Radius.

11. Lines compared to one another are of

the same or different Species.

12. Lines compared together of the fame

Species, are either Parallel or Angular.

13. Parallel lines, are fuch as are equally distant in all places, and are either Right lined Parallels, or Circular.

14. Right lined Parallels, are fuch as being in one and the felf fame plane, and infinitely produced on both fides, do never meet in any part.

15. A Circular Parallel is a Circle drawn

within or without another Circle.

16. Angular lines are fuch as inclinining, or bowing to one another, touch one another, but not in a direct Line.

17. An Angle is either Right or Oblique.

18. A Right Angle, is that whose legs or sides

are Perpendicular to one another.

or fides do incline to one another upon one fide more than upon another.

20. An Oblique Angle is either Acute, or

Obtuse.

gni-

but

es,

y it

, is

ally

10

hat

the

led

en-

16.

of

me

lly

ed

in

vn

or

ut

7.

21. An Acute Oblique Angle, is that which is less than a Right.

22. An Obtuse Oblique Angle, is that which

is greater than a Right Angle.

23. The Measure of an Angle, is the Arch of a Circle described upon the Angular Point, and intersected between the sides of the Angle sufficiently prolonged; but of this Measure there can be no certain knowledge, unless the quantity of that Arch be expressed in Numbers.

24. Every Circle therefore is supposed to be divided into 360 equal parts, called Degrees, and every Degree into 60 Minutes, and every Minute into 60 Seconds, and so forward; others suppose every Degree to be subdivided into 10 parts, and every one of those into 10 more, and so forward, as far as you please.

25. A Semi-circle is the half of a whole

Circle, and containeth 180 Degrees.

26. A Quadrant, or fourth part of a Circle, is 90 Degrees; and feeing that a Right Line falling Perpendicularly upon a Right Line, doth make the Angles on both sides equal, and cutteth a Semi-circle into two equal parts, the fourth

fourth part of a Circle, or 90 Degrees, must

needs be the Measure of a Right Angle.

27. Thus are Lines compared with Lines of the same Species, the comparing of Lines of different Species, is the comparing of Right Lines with those that are Oblique or Circular.

28. And Right Lines, as they have reference to, or are compared with the Circumference of a Circle, are either such as are inscribed

within it, or applyed to it.

29. A Right Line, inscribed in a Circle, either passeth through the Centre, as the Diameter and Radius, or is drawn besides the Centre, as Chords and Sines.

30. A Diameter, is a Right Line inscribed through the Centre of the Circle, dividing the

Circle into two equal parts.

31. The Radius of a Circle is the one half of the Diameter, or a Right Line drawn from the Centre to the Circumference; thus the Right Line G B D, in Fig. 1. is a Diameter, GB, or B D, the Radius.

32. A Chord or Subtense, is an inscribed Right Line drawn through or besides the Centre bounded at both ends with the Circum-

ference.

33. A Chord or Subtense, drawn through the

Centre is the same with the Diameter.

34. A Chord or Subtense, drawn besides the Centre, is a Right Line bounded at both ends with the Circumference, but alwayes less than the Diameter.

35. Sines are either Right or Versed.

36. A Right Sine is half the Chord of the Double Arch, and it is either the whole Sine, and Sine of 90 Deg. or Sine less than the whole.

37. The whole Sine is equal to the Semidiameter or Radius of a Circle, as the Right

Line B E.

ft

of

of

ıt

r-

e

ď

,

1-

e

d

C

of

e

it

,

d

1-

1-

C

0

s

n

5.

38. A Sine less than whole, is half the Chord of any Arch less than a Semi-circle; as EA is

the Sine of C D.

39. A Versed Sine, is a part of the Diameter lying between the Right Sine and the Circumference, as the Right Line AD, which is one part of the Diameter, is the Versed Sine of the Arch CD, and the Right Line AG, which is the other part of the Diameter, is the Versed Sine of the Arch CEG.

40. A Right line applied to a Circle, is either

a Tangent or Secant.

41. A Tangent, is a Right Line without but touching the Circle, drawn Perpendicular to the end of the Radius or Diameter, continued

at the Secant.

42. A Secant, is a Right Line drawn from the Centre of the Circle, through the Term of an Arch, and continued to the Tangent; Thus the Right Line F D, is the Tangent, and the Right Line BF, is the Secant of the Arch C D, or of the Arch C E G, the Complement thereof to a Semi-circle.

43. These Lines thus inscribed in, or applyed to a Circle, may to any limited Radius be drawn or made upon a Rule of Wood, Brass, or other

Metal

Metal; or, a Table may be made, expressing the Length of these Lines in numbers, answering to every Degree and part of a Degree in the Quadrant or Semi-circle; That is, the Lines of Chords and Versed Sines may be made to any part of a Semi-circle, and the Lines of Sines, Tangents and Secants, to any part of a Quadrant: The use of such Scales and Tables, that no Student in Geometrie can well be without them; here therefore I will lay down fuch Propolitions as will fufficiently demonstrate the way of making these Lines upon a Scale or Ruler, but as to the construction of the Tables by which the lengths of these Lines are expressed in Numbers : I refer them to my Trigonometria Britamica, and other Books of the like nature.

Proposition 1.

Upon a Right Line given, to erest a Perpendicular, from any Point assigned.

Let it be required to erect a Perpendicular to the Line DG, from the Point B, in Fig. 2. take two equidiffant Points, as D and G, open your Compaffes to a convenient distance, and fetting one Foot of your Compaffes in B, draw the Arch EC, and keeping your Compaffes at the same distance, set one Foot in G, and with the other draw the Arch HIF, and through the Intersections of these two Arches draw a Right Line, as BL, which shall be perpendicular to the Point B.

But if it were required to erect a Perpendicular from the end of a Line, do thus, your Compasses being opened to any convenient diftance, fet one Foot in the Point given, as at A. in the Line AB, and the other at D, or where you pleafe, and making D the Centre, draw the Arch C A E, and from the points G and D, draw the Right Line C DE, then draw the Line AC. which shall be Perpendicular to the Line AB, from the point A, as was required.

Proposition II.

From a Point assigned without a Right Line given, tolet fall a Perpendicular.

Let the given Line be D G, and let the point affigned be L, at the distance of L.D draw the Arch DAGF, then fetting one Foot of your Compasses in D, draw the Arch IK, and keeping your Compasses at the same distance, set one foot in G, and with the other draw the Arch M, the Right Line L B D, drawn through ular the Interfections of those two Arches shall be Perpendicular to DG, from the Point L, as pen was required.

But if it were required to let fall a Perpenraw dicular from the point E; upon the Line AB, s at draw the Line E D Cat pleasure, which being with bisected at D, upon D as a Centre at the distance the of E D, draw the Arch E A C, fo shall the ight Line E A be Perpendicular to A B, as was re-

the quired.

ng

ing he

of

iny

les,

ua.

hat

out ro-

vay

er, by

fed

tria na-

ndi-

and

But

Propo-

Proposition III.

11 11

0

6

Ĺ

d

t

H d

7

To Divide a Right Line given into any Number of equal parts.

Draw the Line AC, and from the points A and C erect the Perpendiculars AE and XC, and at any diffrance of the Compasses, set off a many equal parts as you please upon the Perpendiculars AE, and XC, and draw the Parallel Lines EX, FV, GT, HS, KR, LQ, MP, and NO; And let it be required to Divide the Right Line into three equal parts, open your Compasses to the length of the Line given, and setting one Foot in A, where the other Foot shall touch the third Parallel, make a mark, which is at Z, draw the Line AZ, so shall the Line AZ be Divided into three equal parts, as was desired.

And thus may that Line be made, which is

Proposition IV.

How to Divide a Circle into 120 Parts, and by consequence into 360.

Draw the Diameter BC, and upon the point A, describe the Circle CDBL, then draw the Diameter DAN, at Right Angles, to the Diameter CAB.

2. The Semidiameter or Radius of a Circle will

92

will divide the Circle into 6 equal parts, and fo is equal to the Chord of 60 Degrees, A.C., therefore being fet from D to F, thall mark out

the Arch DF, 60 Degrees.

The fide of a Pemagen or fifth part of a Circle, is 72 Degrees; now then, if you bifest the Radius AC in the point E, and make EG = ED; then shall DG = DM, the side of a Pentagon or Chord of 72 Degrees, and FM the difference between DM, 72 and DF 60, that is the Chord of 12, which by bisection shall give the Chord of 6 and 3 Degrees, and fo the Circle may be Divided into 120 parts,

as was propounded.

en-

lld

ind

the

our

nd

oot

k,

.

à

ı

N

e

Ć

4. A Circle being thus divided into 120 Degrees, the Acches are fo equal, that the third part of the Chord of 3 Degrees will fubdivide it into 36, without fentible errour; and your Circle being thus Divided into 360 parts. Lines at every Degree , or half Degree, drawn parallel to the Diameter, shall constitute the Line of Chords, and half thole Chords, the Line of Sines; and the Segments of the Diameter? the Line of Verfed Sines, and as for the Pangents and Secants, a Line touching the Circle drawn perpendicular to the end of the Diameter, and continued to the feveral Lines drawn from the Centre, through every Degree of the Quadrant, shall constitute the Line of Tangents, and those Lines drawn from the Center to the Tangents, shall constitute the Line of Secants alfo. And thus may a Scale be mangle, of a friang ...

made with the Lines of Sines, Tangents, Secant, and equal parts.

CHAP. II.

Of Right Lined Triangles.

Hof Magnitude, that is, of Lines, as they are considered of themselves, or among them has selves.

2. The fecond kind of Magnitude, is that th

which is made of Lines, that is a Figure.

bounded, whether it be with one only limit as at a Circle; or with more, as a Triangle, Quar drangle, Pyramis, or Cube, or c.

4. The terms or limits of every Figure are is

either Lines or Superficies.

is a Superficies.

6. A Figure, which is bounded or limited it

with feveral Superficies, is a Body or Solid.

of length and breadth, and is either Right Lined, Curve Lined, or composed of both.

8. A Right Lined Plane or Superficies, is that which is Terminated with Right Lines; and it

is either a Triangle, or a Triangulate.

9. A

gu Ri

or

th

ants

hey

es,

ht

it

A

o. A Triangle, or the first Right lined Figure, is that which is comprehended by three Right Lines. It is distinguished from the Sides. or from the Angles.

10. In respect of the Sides, a Triangle is ei-

ther Isopleuron, Isosceles, or Scalenum.

An Isopleuron Triangle, is that which hath three equal fides. An Isosceles, which hath two equal fides. And a Scalenum, whose three fides are all unequal.

11. In respect of the Angles, a Triangle

is either Right or Oblique.

12. A Right Angled Triangle, is that which em hath one Right line.

13. An Oblique Angled plane Triangle, is ei-

that ther Acute or Obtuse.

14. An Oblique and Obtuse Angled plane Trien angle, hath two Acute Angles and one Obtuse; an Acute angled Triangle hath all the three Angles Acute.

15. The fecond fort of Right lined Planes are is called a Triangulate, or a Plane, composed of

Triangles.

16. The fides of a Triangulate, are in number more by two than the Triangles, of which it is composed.

17. A Triangulate, is either a Quadrangle, or

ng a Multangle.

18. A Quadrangle, is a Plane comprehended, by four Right lines, and is either a Parallelogram nat or a Trapezium.

19. A Parallelogram, is a Quadrangle, whose